

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME XXXVIII

MARCH 1930

NUMBER 3

Educational News and Editorial Comment

PUBLIC UTILITIES AND TEXTBOOKS

The Federal Trade Commission, which has for some time past been investigating so-called "propaganda" in favor of private ownership of public utilities, listened at a recent session to statements presented by Bernard F. Weadock, an attorney representing the Joint Committee of National Utility Associations. The following paragraphs are part of the report of the hearing before the Commission published in the *United States Daily*.

The day's session, which was shorter than usual, was occupied by Mr. Weadock entirely with submission of documents and other material in support of the utilities' contention that there had been no effort made to alter textbook material in either colleges or public schools. He presented, among these, the full text of a report by the educational members of the Co-operation with Educational Institutions Committee of the National Electric Light Association.

This report was drafted by a committee headed by C. O. Ruggles, of the Ohio State University, and Mr. Weadock informed the Commission that the industrial members of the committee had withdrawn from participation in the survey directed by Mr. Ruggles after the Federal Trade Commission investigation had been instituted. The industrial members did not desire to influence the work of the educators. . . .

The report of the Ruggles committee had caused controversy in earlier testimony in the hearings, and there were charges that the Committee had been unduly influenced by, and was working in the interest of, utility companies. Mr.

Weadock said the report itself should dissipate that thought, and the withdrawal of the industrial members from participation in the survey and report ought to be accepted as showing that the material presented was unbiased.

In defense of the examination of textbooks which Mr. Weadock admitted had been made, the utilities' attorney asserted before the Commission his belief "that everyone has a right to know what was being passed out to the children of the country and whether such material as was used was proper." The attorney added that the business interests of the country have that right; they ought to know, he said, whether the school children are "being systematically misinformed about industry."

"The business interests are lax in their duty," he asserted, "as business men to their stockholders and customers and as citizens to the school children if they fail to ascertain such facts."

Mr. Weadock said that sixty-six textbooks had been analyzed for error only in so far as reference was made to the public-utility business. In nineteen cases, he remarked, the direct statement was made, or it was implied, that municipal and state governments are corrupt by nature and that all public utilities obtain the right to do business by bribery. In twenty-seven instances, he said, opinions and conjecture of the author were given as fact, and nineteen texts were found to be obsolete.

Mr. Weadock cited some of the language used in textbooks which he said plainly argued for public ownership of utilities and read the following passage into the record as illustrative of the type of material which he declared had been found.

"The chief arguments against private ownership of public utilities are that it encourages the use of bribery and wholesale graft to obtain franchises; the desire for profit at the sacrifice of good public service; unwillingness to maintain efficient, up-to-date methods and to extend service into neighborhoods which will not bring immediate profits; the need of controlling the city government in order to prevent the city from regulating the utility; 'watered stock' which bears a high rate of interest at the expense of the city."

In this same book, he said, the following statement was found. "The Federal Trade Commission, consisting of five members, has about the same relation to general trade practices as the Interstate Commerce Commission has to transportation problems. While there seems to be some duplication in the work of the Bureau of Corporations and that of the Federal Trade Commission, the latter goes farther than the Bureau of Corporations in being able to compel corporations to present testimony to conform to certain regulations."

The utilities' lawyer asserted that in the instance concerning the merits of private ownership, the best that could be said was that it was unfair, while in the case of the reference to the Commission, it was entirely misleading.

Mr. Weadock added that he had attempted at no time to insert the question of merit of private or public ownership into the proceeding and believed that

such a question had no place in the proceeding. With this, Edgar A. McCulloch, the presiding commissioner, agreed and added that he had sought to prevent such matters from entering the case as presented by government counsel as well.

The investigations by the Federal Trade Commission make it perfectly clear that some educational agency rather than a commission organized to deal with problems of trade should determine the curriculum to be followed in the training of pupils with regard to civic and industrial organization. Evidently it is possible to find in textbooks partisan statements in favor of both public ownership and private ownership of utilities. Furthermore, anyone who knows the school curriculums of this country cannot fail to reach the conclusion that there is far too little in American school programs about matters of social significance. It is because the schools have not done their duty that the Federal Trade Commission is investigating their teachings.

PROFESSOR BRIGGS ON AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOLS

Both because of the eminence of the speaker and because of the occasion, the recent pronouncements of Professor Thomas H. Briggs in the Inglis lecture delivered at Harvard University have attracted wide attention. The *New York Sun* published the following account of Professor Briggs's lecture.

A scathing indictment of the secondary schools of this country, both public and private, was made by Dr. Thomas H. Briggs, professor of education at Teachers College, in the course of the annual Inglis lecture which he was invited to deliver at Harvard University.

Not only did Dr. Briggs accuse the high schools of inefficiency as educational institutions, but he blamed them for much of the present crime wave. Under present conditions, he declared, large numbers of youths who are unfitted by nature to profit from academic courses are doomed to failure. He advocated for such as these proper vocational schools.

Regarding the private secondary schools, Dr. Briggs stated that the few successful institutions serve "as a shield for the multitude of unsuccessful schools" and that society will no longer tolerate the private school when it has prepared an educational program consistent with its need.

Because of the controversial nature of his remarks, Dr. Briggs at the outset of his address emphasized that the views expressed by him are purely personal and do not reflect the attitude of either Teachers College or Harvard University.

Commenting on the growth in secondary education during the past generation, Dr. Briggs said: "We are amazed and proud as we contemplate the

twenty-odd thousand high schools, many of them magnificently housed; equipment that compares favorably with that of colleges; the more than four million students who are enrolled and retained as never before; the laws that extend the privileges of free attendance even beyond the school districts; the improved skill of teachers; the better personal relations with students; the concern for their welfare in a larger concept of education; the recognition of the importance of extra-curriculum activities and their direction; and the increased importance of such subjects as general science, music, fine arts, and industrial education.

"We now have better machinery for education than we have a conception of what education is," he charged. "When we ask, either of the professional schoolman or of the enthusiastic layman, for a justifying philosophy of education or even for a common-sense statement of what is being sought by means of the elaborate machinery, we find much indefiniteness and consequently an alarming disagreement on what should be the details of the program."

According to Dr. Briggs, state's attorneys in most American communities might conceivably present against education authorities indictments for misfeasance in office and misappropriation of public funds. Indictments, he continued, would consist of three main counts: First, that the school authorities have made no serious effort to formulate for secondary schools a curriculum which promises maximum good to the supporting state; second, that there has been no "respectable achievement" even in the subjects offered in the secondary schools, "poorly chosen as these are"; and, third, that no effort has been made sufficient to establish in students appreciation of the values of the subjects in the curriculum to insure continued study either in higher schools or independently after compulsion ceases.

Dr. Briggs gave instances of the failure of the students to gain much from their studies, declaring that they get, for the most part, only smatterings of the subjects and that large proportions of the student body fail to meet the requirements of their courses.

This procedure, he stated, is fair to students at neither extreme, since those with exceptional academic abilities are not challenged as they should be to the high accomplishments of which they are capable and those "with abilities of other kinds are wasting their time in attempting a program for which nature did not equip them and in which they are doomed to insignificant achievements or to failure."

After declaring that education is an investment which should be made to pay dividends to the state in the form of good citizens, Dr. Briggs went on:

"If education were generally and truly considered a necessary investment by the state, teachers would more commonly be held in high esteem. One good teacher is worth a regiment of policemen. Consider this country's shameful crime record. For this our secondary schools are largely to blame. Laws are broken largely because of selfishness, and selfishness is in chief measure due to a lack of knowledge and imagination of remote and important consequences.

"All proposals for a reduction in the number of violations of the law are of

petty significance when contrasted with the one means that can be effective. That means is education. It is the only means that will materially improve the observance of, and the respect for, law."

Dr. Briggs urged that vocational schools of the highest type be established to take care of students who are not fitted for purely academic training. Secondary education, he declared, has been handicapped by the tradition that it is "most respectable only when it is preparing for institutions of higher learning."

PRIVATE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The following statement is quoted from Bulletin No. 19, 1929, of the United States Office of Education entitled *Statistics of Private High Schools and Academies, 1927-1928*, which was prepared under the direction of Frank M. Phillips, chief of the Division of Statistics.

Reports were received from 2,350 schools in 1926 and from 2,448 in 1928. These schools reported 18,025 instructors and 248,076 secondary pupils in 1926 and 20,333 instructors and 269,249 secondary pupils in 1928. The number of pupils graduated increased from 40,715 to 46,189 during this two-year period. No material change is noted in the percentage distribution of pupils among the four high-school years since 1926, although changes have taken place since 1920 and earlier years. In 1920, 36.1 per cent of the enrolment were in the first year, and 16.6 per cent in the fourth year. In 1928, 31.5 per cent were in the first year, and 19.6 per cent in the fourth year. This reduction in the proportion of pupils in the first year and the increase in the fourth year indicate better conditions concerning promotions and an increase in the holding power of the schools. Expansion of the junior-college idea may also be a factor, since 11,200 pupils were registered for work beyond the fourth high-school year.

While the number of schools reporting has increased but 200, or 8.9 per cent, over the number reporting in 1915, the number of secondary pupils enrolled has increased 73.6 per cent; the number in the fourth year increased 88.7 per cent; and the number of graduates increased 107.3 per cent. This indicates the tendency toward larger schools rather than more schools. The number of colored pupils of secondary grade is smaller for 1928 than for 1920, or for any year since 1920, although it represents an increase of 30 per cent over 1915.

Military drill was given to 15,006 boys in 1926 and to 16,528 in 1928. The greatest number of boys in military drill in schools of this type was reported for 1918, when 31,532 boys received military training.

Practically all of these private schools are organized on the regular four-year basis, and only a very few reported either junior or senior departments or divisions.

PHI DELTA KAPPA RESEARCH FELLOWSHIP AND SCHOLARSHIP

The Phi Delta Kappa Fraternity offers a research fellowship and a research scholarship for the year 1930-31. All correspondence re-

garding these stipends should be addressed to Paul M. Cook, executive secretary of the fraternity, 1180 East Sixty-third Street, Chicago, Illinois. The announcement of the scholarship is not here published in full. The qualifications required of candidates are similar to those stated under Section 4 in the announcement of the fellowship. The full announcement of the fellowship and the first section of the announcement of the scholarship are as follows:

I. Research fellowship, \$2,500.

1. Open to application from any man in the United States who is permanently devoted to education as a career and who will complete his course requirements for the doctorate in the academic year 1930-31 in what is commonly regarded as professional work in education with not less than half his time available for work on his dissertation.
2. The candidate must agree not to engage in any work not required by his courses and dissertation during this academic year and not to accept any other fellowship or scholarship during that period.
3. The candidate must fill out an application blank, send it to the executive secretary of Phi Delta Kappa, have his references write the latter direct, and submit all available evidence on Section 4 following so that all materials are in the hands of the executive secretary not later than May 1, 1930. The choice of evidence is purposely left largely with the candidate.
4. The award will be made by the Executive Committee of Phi Delta Kappa and announced early in June of this year. The award will take into account the following.
 - a) The value to public education of a research on which the candidate has already started. By "public education" is meant the public-school system and workers in it, covering the span from the kindergarten through the university, but the research may apply to only part of the system. The candidate's references should cover this item, as will also the application blank.
 - b) The proved fitness of the candidate for research as shown by progress on his dissertation and previous researches, and the likelihood of his completing the dissertation and all his work for the doctorate by the close of the academic year 1930-31. The candidate's references should cover this item.

This is understood to apply only to a man completing the work at an institution where he has been registered, and not to a man contemplating going to a new institution. The latter is not eligible.
 - c) The standing in educational research, in the field of the student's research, and in work for the doctorate of the particular institution in which the candidate proposes to do the research. The institution must be in the United States.

- d) The standing in educational research and in the field of the student's research of the professor under whom the candidate proposes to work.
 - 5. The stipend will be paid in two instalments:
 - a) Twelve hundred and fifty dollars in the fall of 1930 upon proof by the candidate that he has registered in an institution according to the conditions specified by him in his application.
 - b) Twelve hundred and fifty dollars on February 1, 1931, if suitable evidence of satisfactory progress by the student on his research has been submitted and he obligates himself to deliver a first-copy typed copy of his completed research by June 1, 1931. All publication rights will remain with him.
 - 6. An appointment and a first and second alternate will be made so that the award may surely be used.
- II. Research scholarship, \$500.
- 1. Open to application from any man in the United States who is permanently devoted to education as a career, who has signified this by his previous definitely professional training, but who has not taken the Master's degree from a standard institution before May 1, 1930.

TEXTBOOKS IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS

The following statement was published in the *United States Daily*. It was prepared by Frank M. Phillips, chief of the Division of Statistics, United States Office of Education, and made public January 15 by the commissioner of education, William John Cooper.

Sixty publishers of school and college textbooks reported total net sales amounting to \$49,097,466 for the calendar year 1928. The list of publishers includes the state printer of books in California and all the larger publishing concerns, thus representing the bulk of the textbook business in this country.

Practically all those reporting were able to divide the business according to elementary, secondary, and college classifications and to report the number of books sold under each classification. For elementary-school purposes, 39,406,677 books were sold for \$22,735,745 net; for high-school purposes, 18,683,290 books for \$16,288,422 net; and for college, university, professional-school, and teacher-training institution purposes, 6,080,484 books for \$10,073,299 net. The total number of books sold during the year is 64,170,451.

The average net cost of an elementary textbook is, therefore, 57.7 cents; of a high-school textbook, 87.2 cents; and of a college textbook, 165.7 cents; making an average for all books sold of 76.5 cents. These figures represent the net cost, which does not include a dealer's profit. As books are sold generally at 20 or 25 per cent off list prices, it is necessary to add 25 or 33 per cent to the net cost to get the cost per book of those sold at retail.

It is not possible to state in exact terms the amount of net sales that went to public schools, but, since 91 per cent of the total elementary- and high-school

enrolment are in public schools, 91 per cent of \$39,024,167 may be assumed to be the total net sales for books used in public schools. This amount, \$35,511,992, represents 1.63 per cent of the total expenditure for public-school education in 1927-28. Of this total public-school expenditure, \$2,184,847,200, the amount expended for free textbooks by boards of education in all states is \$23,256,151, or 65.5 per cent of the total net sales of books used in public schools. The greatest part of these is for elementary texts.

If the amount expended for free textbooks in public schools be subtracted from \$35,511,992, there remains \$12,255,841 as the amount of net sales of books bought by individuals, presumably through dealers. An average of 30 per cent profit would make \$15,932,593 the cost to the general public for new books for the year.

No data were collected to show the volume of the second-hand book business, but, as those books merely change ownership, the net expenditure by individuals for textbooks used in public schools is between \$16,000,000 and \$17,000,000 for the year.

In 1913 forty-three publishing concerns reported net sales amounting to \$17,274,030, of which amount \$14,261,768 was for public-school use. This amounts to 78.3 cents for each child enrolled during that year, and to 2.73 per cent of the total expenditures for public-school education. The 1928 net sales amount to \$1.41 per child enrolled during 1927-28.

STATUS OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL IN NEW YORK CITY

The *New York Sun* comments on a lack of agreement between the corporation counsel of New York City and the state commissioner of education with regard to the classification of junior high schools as elementary schools or secondary schools. A part of the statement is as follows:

The status of junior high schools was further confused when it was learned that the Board of Superintendents had received an unofficial opinion from a representative of the corporation counsel's office that these schools are part of the elementary-school system.

The superintendents decided to follow this point of view in fixing eligibility of candidates for junior high school principalships. However, they will follow the opposite ruling of the state commissioner of education—that junior high schools are of secondary grade—in determining the method of selecting junior high school principals.

This dual stand means that elementary-school principals lacking secondary-school experience will still be eligible for junior high school principalships and that applicants who lack elementary-school principals' licenses will not be eligible for the junior high school posts, but that, on the other hand, junior high school principalships will be out of the merit system of appointment. . . .

The apparent discrepancy between the ruling of Commissioner Graves to the effect that junior high schools are secondary schools and that of the corporation counsel to the effect that they are elementary schools is explained by a complicated line of legal reasoning.

The two decisions, members of the Board of Superintendents explain, are based on the Lockwood-Donohue salary law adopted by the State Legislature in 1920. This law fixed the minimum salaries which might legally be paid teachers and classified the junior high schools under the major heading "Elementary Schools."

With the passage of time the junior high schools have so developed, the explanation continues, that they can no longer be classified as elementary schools and have become secondary schools by virtue of the type of work done in them. Accordingly, Dr. Graves a few years ago ruled that these schools are secondary schools.

When the question, along with Dr. Graves's ruling, was presented to the corporation counsel, however, he held that the mere fact of Dr. Graves's calling the institutions secondary schools does not of itself make them such in contravention of the 1920 statute. He added that Section 883 of the State Education Law, which is the statute classifying the junior high schools under the elementary-school heading, specifically outlines the salary to be paid junior high school teachers, which is the same paid seventh- and eighth-grade teachers in the elementary schools.

Therefore, the corporation counsel concluded, the junior high schools are a type of elementary school, and no person is eligible to be principal of such a school unless he holds an elementary-school principal's license. . . .

The point will probably be determined by the courts when a decision is handed down in the suit of the Junior High School Association, which is suing for secondary-school salaries.

PRESIDENT LOWELL ON ATHLETICS

In his annual report President A. Lawrence Lowell discusses the tendency of college athletics to take on the character of public exhibitions rather than to serve as opportunities for pleasure and cultivation of physical well-being. President Lowell's statements are quite as applicable to high-school athletics as to college athletics. His report contains the following paragraphs.

Only occasionally have these reports dealt with the subject of athletics, but from time to time it is worth while to ask ourselves, What is the object for which we are striving? And that is as true of intercollegiate sports as of anything else. At the time those contests originated, the conscious motive for sports was pleasure, the amusement of play, though their rational object was physical improvement in acquiring strength and skill by exercise.

Not unnaturally, intercollegiate games came to be regarded as ends in themselves, and the players as champions defending the pride and interest of their respective colleges. As such, the contests attracted a constantly growing interest among the alumni and were attended by ever increasing crowds of spectators. To seat them, in the case of football, we built our stadium, which was copied by other colleges, several of them surpassing ours in size. As the desire to see the games grows on the part of alumni, there is a demand for a larger amphitheater.

Of late years, therefore, two diverse tendencies have been at work in athletics. Within the university there has been an enlarging effort for universal physical training, fostered by compulsory exercise for Freshmen and by stimulating, as far as possible, intramural sports. In this way large numbers of men are brought to take strenuous and enjoyable exercise, as is proved by the numbers of crews on the river, of men practicing for football, on the track, or playing on the tennis and squash courts.

The students themselves by no means regard athletics as the business of the few while the great mass sit upon bleachers and cheer. They tend to take a very rational view of the various opportunities in college life and do not place undue emphasis upon the spectacular. At the same time the tendency outside the university has been very different. It has been that of increased attendance, demand for more seats, treating the intercollegiate contests as occasions of great significance, and, in general, magnifying their importance without regard to the effect on the higher purposes of the college.

Recreation and competitive sports are excellent, nay indispensable, in the training of youth; and intercollegiate contests are valuable, if not essential, in keeping up the general interest in sports of this kind, but they may be overdone. The two great nations of antiquity, whose languages, deeds, and thoughts our colleges have always taught, had games publicly attended and attracting wide interest but conducted on different principles.

No people ever set more store by competitive athletic contests than the Greeks; none valued and commemorated success more highly. Their sports attracted large crowds. Yet with them the object was, and always remained, the cultivation of physical excellence in young men. Nothing was allowed to obscure that purpose; everything else was subordinated to it.

With the Romans, on the contrary, the primary object was the entertainment of the spectators, the performers becoming more and more professional, while the training of youth in health and strength was lost from sight almost altogether.

Is not the Greek principle preferable to the Roman for our colleges? But with our frequent intercollegiate games, with the attracting of huge crowds at short intervals, and continuous publicity, are we not slipping into the Roman attitude of mind?

The Greeks thought one great contest of a kind in a year enough to sustain ardor in athletics. May it not be that a single intercollegiate meet in each sport would do the same? Many of the alumni are slipping into the Roman attitude of

mind, while the authorities of the university are striving to follow the Greek conception of these things.

On the part of the vast majority of alumni this is quite unconscious. They would undoubtedly, if presented with the alternative, approve of the Greek rather than the Roman attitude in our colleges; but the subject is not presented to them in that way, appearing simply as a matter of gratification in seeing, and taking their friends to, the game. It may, therefore, be worth while to state the question as it lies in the minds of those responsible for the training of young men.

WILLIAM MCANDREW'S COMMENT ON
THE CHICAGO SCHOOL SYSTEM

Judge Hugo Pam ruled that the Board of Education of Chicago acted illegally in its vote of dismissal of William McAndrew from the superintendency. Mr. McAndrew, writing to a reporter of the *Chicago Tribune* from a remote and picturesque village in France, where he is living, represents himself as being interviewed by this reporter. The interview is so typical of Mr. McAndrew and so wholesome in its tone that it should be read by every school officer and layman.

A part of the interview published in the *Chicago Tribune* is as follows:

"Well, your newspaper, the *Tribune*, seemed to me to summarize the situation exactly as it is. The news dispatches I saw in the European papers didn't."

"What's the difference?" I asked.

"Every dispatch I saw spoke of the decision as a vindication of the superintendent. That is absurd. The Chicago people who instituted the suits and paid the expenses of both of them, certiorari and libel, had no desire or intention of vindicating me. They sought to loosen the grip of the City Hall upon the schools.

"As the *Tribune* has repeatedly said, the idea of running a school system to please a mayor or a common council is abhorrent. What other town or city does it?

"Where else will you find a school board letting the mayor name its president and other officers as the Chicago board does? Where else do aldermen summon a school superintendent?

"It's a discarded stupidity everywhere else. They had it in New York fifty years ago. The politicians meeting in the back rooms of saloons chose the teachers. Every city but ours outgrew it years ago. The certiorari suit was aimed to stop this. A City Hall bureau wanted the patronage of some hundred places occupied by teachers assigned as assistants in principals' offices. Instead of standing up for the necessary independence of the schools from political interference, your board quietly laid itself down. The teachers went to court. They were right.

"In every other city than ours the educational department selects the teachers for similar positions. Our Chicago board harbored the absurd notion that the superintendent would side with the City Hall instead of with the teachers. He didn't.

"They suspended him. They began trying him on God knows what—they don't. They read the Declaration of Independence at him and slapped him for practicing it.

"How anyone could infer that it was necessary to sue for 'vindication' of anyone condemned by that galaxy of 'yes' men astonishes me.

"What can be done with a vindication? It won't pay teachers' salaries. Mr. Chadsey was given a vindication by the court. Nobody thought he needed it. For Chicago to let school boards go on squandering the people's money and fighting its own officers, or giving board members' children fat contracts or salaried jobs with the hope that there will be a few 'vindications,' is for Chicago people to advertise that they are willing to have their board of education 'prevent education.'"

"What do you think the Chicago schools most need?" I asked him.

"Stability," he answered. "What worth-while thing can you do in a constant upset? Look at our Chicago schools within the memory of men of middle age: Superintendent Lane, hectored by the board and ousted; Andrews, ditto; Cooley, the same; Mrs. Young, worse and worse. We never, in the last forty years, have had a superintendent long enough to develop a policy. Most of the time the board was badgering him out of attending to his main business."

"What would you do, Mr. McAndrew," I asked.

"What other cities have done. Make a school system that replaces the present absurdities with provisions that are known to work well elsewhere. Provide for an independent school fund capable of paying teachers comparably with those in cities where living costs what it does in Chicago.

"Cut the mayor and the common council loose from the schools. They muss. Cut down the school board to five members and break up the foolish idea that the Italian vote, or the Jewish vote, or Polish, is to be 'represented.' A board entirely of Scotchmen couldn't be worse than the present idea of recognizing a group by membership on the board.

"Elect board members on a non-partisan ticket and at a time other than when the parties vote. Keep the laymen on the board from meddling with the board of examiners, the textbooks, and the supervision of the teaching force."

EXPENDITURES OF HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS

The following statement was issued by the University of Southern California.

How much should a high-school boy or girl spend for hats, shoes, hose, sportswear, leather goods, etc.? Questions answered in a high-school survey conducted by Marc N. Goodnow, director of the Bureau of Field Work of the De-

partment of Journalism of the University of Southern California, to establish the buying-power of the secondary-school market reveal that the average expenditure per year of high-school pupils in twenty-four representative high schools in southern California for merchandise is \$233.52 for boys and \$356.54 for girls.

Itemized, these totals resolve into the following average figures:

Boys: hats and caps, \$3.91; shoes, \$19.82; hose, \$7.09; garters, \$0.25; suits (complete), \$51.03; coats, \$2.77; overcoats, \$15.40; pants, \$15.21; shirts, \$14.03; sweaters, \$12.46; collars, \$0.08; ties, \$5.54; underwear, \$8.38; gloves, \$1.29; sportswear, \$8.78; jewelry, \$6.00; stationery, \$3.44; fountain pens, \$3.62; sports goods, \$12.61; musical instruments, \$14.47; candy, \$12.08; haircuts, shaves, etc., \$11.65; toilet goods, \$3.61; total, \$233.52.

Girls: hats, \$13.87; shoes, \$34.85; hose, \$21.53; dresses (complete), \$92.23; skirts, \$8.69; blouses, \$4.05; underwear, \$17.66; coats, \$59.83; gloves, \$3.64; furs, \$4.25; sportswear, \$13.64; drygoods, \$8.03; leather goods, \$8.89; jewelry, \$13.28; sports goods, \$4.61; musical instruments, \$6.20; toilet goods, \$10.64; stationery, \$5.22; fountain pens, \$3.11; haircuts and shampoos, \$11.62; candy, \$10.70; total, \$356.54.

PROVIDING FOR EXCEPTIONAL PUPILS

The following statement is quoted from the *New York Sun*.

What to do with pupils of high-school age who lack the ability to pursue the traditional high-school course is perplexing teachers and principals throughout the state. The problem is recognized by all, but there is wide difference of opinion as to its solution.

This is disclosed in a report made by Dr. Warren W. Coxe, director of the educational research division of the State Department of Education, who recently made a survey of secondary schools in the state. Dr. Coxe questioned a large number of teachers and principals in the course of his inquiry. His report summarizes the answers, pointing out how diverse and conflicting they sometimes are.

One question asked by Dr. Coxe was, "What should be done with pupils who do not have the ability to pursue a regular high-school course?" The term "regular high-school course" was generally interpreted to mean the general academic course.

Dr. Coxe's summary of the replies follows.

"Some teachers would eliminate pupils of low ability from high schools and place them in trade or vocational schools. This answer was particularly typical of the teachers of New York City, who seemed to think in terms of several types of secondary school, the high school giving academic and college-preparatory courses for the superior pupils.

"In contrast to these suggestions the teachers in small high schools suggest that such pupils should be given special manual work and that the high school should discover the aptitudes and inclinations of their pupils and furnish ap-

propriate training. While several other types of replies were given, all of them are more or less modifications of these two diverse points of view.

"A few specific suggestions were made as to how the high school could adapt work to the less able pupils. Some teachers would reduce the amount of cultural or general training and put more emphasis on technical; some would furnish a special curriculum with special teachers; others would teach the regular subjects but simplify the courses to meet the need of these pupils."

Commenting on the replies, Dr. Coxe says:

"Probably this question raises one of the most pertinent which secondary education has to face today, namely, how to care for the pupil who is not successful with the traditional offerings. It is obvious that the suggestions are quite diverse in character."

Turning to the other extreme, the exceptionally bright pupils, Dr. Coxe asked whether it would be desirable to give such students "more difficult courses than we now offer?" Again the replies were varied. Dr. Coxe reports:

"There is a slight tendency for teachers to oppose providing more difficult work in the larger as well as in the smaller schools. Those opposed give the following reasons:

"1. There are not enough superior children to warrant it.

"2. It would be better to cover present courses more thoroughly than to introduce more difficult courses.

"3. Instead of more difficult courses it would be better to allow time for the carrying-out of individual interests and study.

"More difficult courses might overtax children; enriching would, therefore, be better than increasing the difficulty.

"Of the reasons given in support of more difficult courses, the following may be noted.

"1. Easy work establishes habits of laziness which carry over into other work.

"2. It is one duty of the school to develop leaders, and this is one way of discovering and training them.

"3. Unused powers either wither away or express themselves in undesirable ways."

HOME STUDY

Teachers and school officials in New York City have been carrying on a vigorous discussion in recent months with regard to the advantages and disadvantages of home study. A committee of the Manual Training High School of that city, with Harry Eisner of the Department of Mathematics as chairman, asked the pupils in the Senior class to report their experiences and judgments with regard to home study. The outcome of the committee's investigation is re-

ported in the *Bulletin of High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*. The summary of the report is as follows:

The main facts brought out by the questionnaire are as follows: The median time devoted to written home work is one hour; to home study, exclusive of written home work, one hour; to all home study, including written home work, two and one-half hours. There is substantial agreement that marked improvement in school work is due to bettered home work but less certainty that failure can be attributed to poor or insufficient home study. Mathematics leads in excessiveness of home-work assignments, with history second, and the sciences remarkably free from complaint. Home work was least burdensome during the first year and perhaps most so during the third year. It is burdensome principally because it is excessive. The indications are that the first and eighth terms exact the greatest amount of study. The majority of pupils replying (52 per cent) think that they studied more as they progressed in their school course. Relatively little interference with home study was caused by after-school or evening employment or school activities, but over one-third believed that other outside activities or amusements constituted a serious disturbing influence. The home is by far the best place for study, the prefect room by far the worst, with the study hall and subject class occupying second and third places, respectively. There is a strong feeling that home study is useful for acquisition of knowledge in high school and as preparation for college but less conviction that it prepares for life. About one-third believe that home work should be increased or kept the same; two-thirds believe that it should be decreased or eliminated, with 18 per cent favoring elimination.

Objection may be raised to this questionnaire and the findings therefrom on the ground that the questions call for mere personal opinions and estimates which are necessarily approximate at best and even erroneous, occasionally. While this is readily admitted, the writer contends that the point of view of the pupils, which can be best obtained from their own lips, is important as the initial step in a scientific study of home work in high schools. As the next step in this project a questionnaire has been prepared by the school committee on how to study and submitted to the teachers to get their attitude toward home work with regard to the conditions under which it is imposed and its effectiveness as an aid to instruction. To supplement this second phase of our inquiry there should be instituted a series of scientific experiments to ascertain the optimum amount, content, and other pertinent attributes of home work in the various secondary-school subjects. This presents a large field for research in which little has thus far been accomplished. When such experiments have been performed by qualified teachers throughout the school system and the results made available for study, we shall then be well on the road to a solution of the whole vexing problem.

STUDENT OPINION IN JUNIOR COLLEGES IN CALIFORNIA

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The purpose of this article is to report a summary of the opinions of more than three thousand students in junior colleges in California regarding various significant aspects of the institutions of which they are a part. The only similar study is one by Wellemeyer, who in an article published in 1926 summarized the opinions of 469 students in the eight public junior colleges then in existence in Kansas.¹ Twenty-eight junior colleges are represented in the present study. They include thirteen of the sixteen district junior colleges, twelve of the sixteen junior colleges of the high-school type, the one state junior college, and two of the thirteen small private institutions in the state in 1928-29.²

The method used was frankly that of the questionnaire. Whatever may be said against the questionnaire for certain types of studies, there can be no doubt that it is a legitimate instrument of research and the only possible method for the study of opinion. Although some factual questions were included, the primary purpose of the study was to secure the opinions of the students themselves, their feelings and personal reactions to various significant aspects of their junior-college life and relationships.

In the case of all but four of the colleges, where co-operation was

¹ J. Fletcher Wellemeyer, "The Junior College as Viewed by Its Students," *School Review*, XXXIV (December, 1926), 760-67.

² District type: Chaffey (Ontario), Compton, Fullerton, Glendale, Long Beach, Modesto, Pasadena, Riverside, Sacramento, San Bernardino, Santa Ana, Santa Rosa, Yuba County (Marysville). High-school type: Central (El Centro), Citrus (Azusa), Kern County (Bakersfield), Pomona, Porterville, Reedley, Salinas, San Benito County (Hollister), Santa Maria, Taft, Ventura, Visalia. State: California Polytechnic School (San Luis Obispo). Private: Menlo Junior College (Menlo Park), Los Angeles Private Junior College (Los Angeles).

secured by mail, one of the writers took the questionnaires to the different institutions and secured the personal co-operation of the administrative head. In the institutions having less than 200 students, an effort was made to have the questionnaire filled out by all students in attendance. In the larger schools, ranging in size from 250 to 1,700 students, 100 representative Freshmen and the same number of representative Sophomores were asked to answer the questions. The final results include a summary of 3,058 replies, representing 36 per cent of the 8,555 students enrolled in these twenty-eight colleges on October 1, 1928.

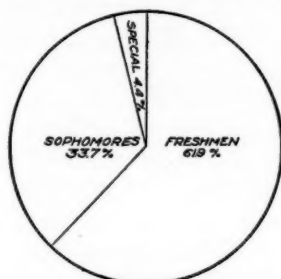


FIG. 1

FIG. 1.—Percentage distribution of 3,058 junior-college students by classes

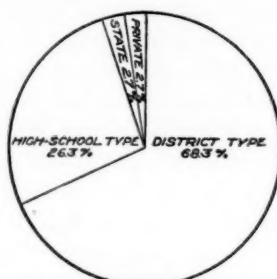


FIG. 2

FIG. 2.—Percentage distribution of 3,058 junior-college students according to types of institutions represented.

Composition of the group.—In the entire group the sexes were represented almost equally, 55 per cent men and 45 per cent women. Figure 1 shows the distribution by classes, 61.9 per cent Freshmen and 33.7 per cent Sophomores. Very nearly the same distribution by classes is found in the entire enrolment in the state. Figure 2 shows the distribution of the total group according to the type of institution represented. It will be noted that approximately two-thirds of the students are found in the strong, independent junior colleges of the "district" type, which represent the best development of the junior-college movement in California. These institutions are independent of the high schools in support, organization, administration, and faculty, and usually in equipment and plant. They had an average attendance of more than six hundred students during the

school year 1928-29. Only 2.7 per cent of the replies came from students in two of the private junior colleges. This study is, then, essentially a study of student opinion in *public* junior colleges in California.

Residence, plans, and employment.—That the junior college is a local institution, serving a large number of students who may remain under home influences for two additional years, is shown by the fact that the first question ("Will you live at homewhile attending junior college?") was answered affirmatively by 81.7 per cent of the students. In the case of the second question ("Do you expect to graduate from junior college?"), the percentage of students answering affirmatively is 80.2, 77 per cent of the Freshmen expecting to graduate and 89 per cent of the Sophomores. These percentages indicate that the junior college has excellent holding power.

The answers to the third question ("Will you go beyond the junior college in your education?") are at once a gratification and a warning. Affirmative replies were given by 90.4 per cent of the students. This high percentage indicates that the junior college is very successful in its preparatory function but that it is succeeding only slightly in its terminal capacity. It will be most unfortunate if the junior college becomes so successful as a popularizing agency that it causes almost all its students to plan on full university courses. Probably the percentage of those who continue should be nearer 50 than 90. This report of 90 per cent is a distinct danger signal.

The answers to the fourth question ("What are your present plans for next year?") are summarized in Table I. Perhaps the most significant and gratifying fact is that a large percentage of the Freshmen planned to continue their work in the junior college. It is probable that many four-year colleges could not show that three-fourths of their Freshmen are planning to return. The large group of Sophomores planning to "continue here" was largely composed of those who entered at the beginning of the second semester or whose courses had been interrupted. Since 93 per cent of the Sophomores said that they expected to continue their education, it is evident that a considerable number of the 12 per cent who planned to work expected to do so only temporarily in order to secure funds for further education.

To the fifth question ("Are you employed part time?"), more

than one-half of the men (54.4 per cent) and one-fifth of the women (19.7 per cent) replied, "Yes." The amount of such employment is shown in Table II. The largest group of men, one-fifth of the total,

TABLE I
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF 1,689 FRESHMEN AND
942 SOPHOMORES ACCORDING TO REPLIES TO QUES-
TION "WHAT ARE YOUR PRESENT PLANS FOR NEXT
YEAR?"

	Percentage of Freshmen	Percentage of Sophomores
Work.....	5.0	12.0
Continue here.....	74.7	16.9
Travel.....	0.3	1.0
University.....	12.9	57.8
Other definite plans.....	4.5	8.5
Undecided.....	2.6	3.8
Total.....	100.0	100.0

TABLE II
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF 747 MEN AND 246 WOMEN
ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF HOURS OF PART-
TIME WORK A WEEK

Number of Hours a Week	Percentage of Men	Percentage of Women
1-5.....	3.6	10.2
6-10.....	18.5	28.1
11-15.....	17.5	12.6
16-20.....	19.8	15.0
21-25.....	10.6	8.1
26-30.....	8.2	6.1
31-35.....	5.6	5.3
36-40.....	4.4	0.8
More than 40.....	7.8	6.9
No report.....	4.0	6.9
Total.....	100.0	100.0

reported that they were working from sixteen to twenty hours a week, and another fifth were working more than thirty hours a week.

Reasons for attendance.—A very important part of the questionnaire is the section dealing with reasons for attendance, which reads as follows:

Reasons for attending junior college (Draw a single line under all statements which had an influence upon your attending junior college. Draw two lines under the most important reason.)

To be with friends

Lack of university entrance credits

Needed at home

Opportunity for social and moral training

To save money

To secure advantage of small classes

Part-time employment available

Greater opportunity in student activities

To prepare for work in the university

To prepare for a vocation

Parents thought you not old enough to go away

Other reasons

There have been numerous statements of the reasons for the existence of junior colleges from the standpoint of the administrator or the research worker; there have been studies of the reasons given in college catalogues and other literature; but little information has been secured from the students themselves. In this study an effort was made to secure not only the reasons for attendance but an evaluation of their relative importance. A summary for the entire group of students is exhibited in Figure 3, where the different reasons are arranged in the order of frequency of mention. The entire length of a bar represents the number of times a reason was underlined, while the solid black part indicates the number of times it was designated as the most important, or dominant, reason. "To save money" and "to prepare for work in the university" were mentioned most frequently. They are the only reasons given by more than one-half of the students. It is interesting to find that "to secure advantage of small classes" stands third in frequency. The large number of students who attend junior college because of "lack of university entrance credits" is explained by the fact that in California entrance to the University of California and to Stanford University is denied to students who have not secured in the high school fifteen "recommending" units (units of A or B grade), while the junior college is open by law to all high-school graduates. "To prepare for a vocation" is another reason frequently given. These five are the reasons of outstanding importance; the others were given

less frequently but still in considerable numbers. An additional reason, "to be at home," was written in so frequently as to warrant inclusion in the figure.

When the dominant reasons are considered, the four of outstanding importance are among the five most frequently underlined. The marked difference is in "to secure advantage of small classes,"

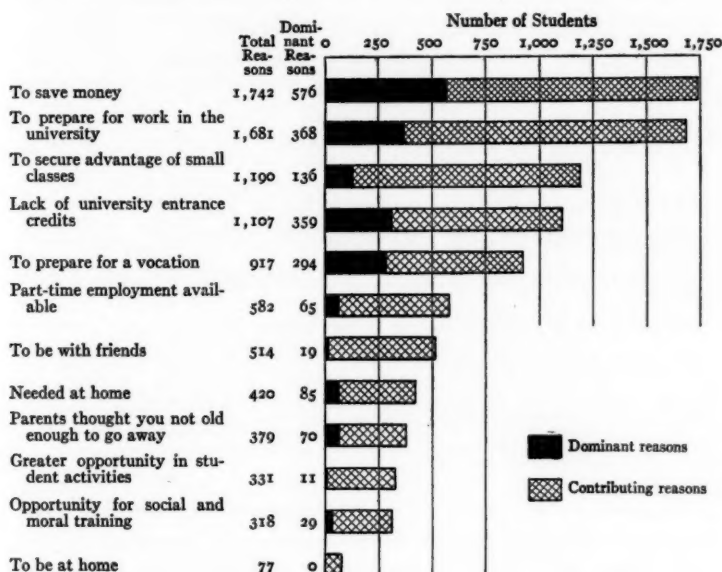


FIG. 3.—Reasons given by 3,058 students for attending junior college

which was indicated much less frequently as the dominant reason but still was given as such by 136 students. Every suggested reason was indicated as the dominant one by some students, even "greater opportunity in student activities" being indicated by eleven students. The rank-order correlation between dominant reasons and total reasons is .88. "To be at home" was mentioned by seventy-seven students and doubtless would have been mentioned more frequently had the parents been consulted.

Approximately the same order of importance is found to be as-

signed to the different reasons when the results are studied from the standpoint of type of college, sex, or class. Thus, the order of importance of the different reasons as given by the students in district junior colleges correlates .99 (Spearman squared-rank method) with the order of importance of the same reasons as ranked by the students in the junior colleges of the high-school type. Similar results for other groups are briefly summarized in Table III, which shows correlations between rank order of importance for both total reasons and dominant reasons. The correlations for various combinations involving state and private institutions are lower than

TABLE III
COMPARISONS OF THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF THE DIFFERENT REASONS FOR ATTENDING JUNIOR COLLEGE AS GIVEN BY DIFFERENT GROUPS OF STUDENTS*

Groups	Total Reasons	Dominant Reasons
Students from district junior colleges and students from junior colleges of the high-school type.....	.99	.97
Freshmen and Sophomores.....	.95	.98
Men and women.....	.76	.85

* Correlations are given in terms of the Spearman squared-rank coefficients between the order of importance of reasons as given by one student group with the order of importance of the same reasons as given by another student group.

those given in Table III, but the number of representatives of these two types is too small for the results to have much significance. The correlations of .76 and .85 indicate considerable differences in the order of importance of the different reasons as given by men and by women. "Lack of university entrance credits" ranks third for men but sixth for women. "Parents thought you not old enough to go away" ranks fifth among the reasons for women but is at the bottom of the list for men. The only significant differences between the two sexes are found in the case of these two reasons.

Opinions on various aspects of the junior college.—The latter part of the questionnaire contains seven important questions of opinion to be answered by "Yes" or "No." The answers are shown graphically in Figure 4. In the case of the first question ("If there were no junior college here, would you probably be in college elsewhere?"),

85 per cent of the group answered, "Yes." This is a remarkably high percentage. In the entire study it is perhaps the only answer the validity of which seems to be open to question. There is no reason to doubt the honesty of the students in *believing* that they would be in college elsewhere if there were no local junior college, but there is serious doubt as to whether such a large percentage of them actually would be. This is not a matter of personal opinion alone. Data recently collected show that in eight junior-college districts in California the enrolment in 1928 was three times as great per thousand

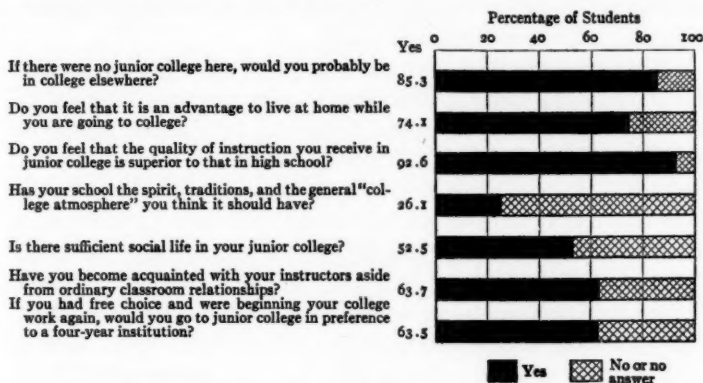


FIG. 4.—Replies of junior-college students to seven questions regarding their junior-college life and relationships.

high-school pupils as the enrolment of Freshmen and Sophomores in all other classes of collegiate institutions in the state. The number of lower-class students in all collegiate institutions other than junior colleges was 9.8 per cent of the number of regular high-school pupils, while in the eight junior-college districts studied the corresponding percentage was 28.2.¹ The almost unanimous affirmative answer is remarkable evidence that the junior college has "arrived," that it is accepted as a normal part of the community educational equipment, that the young people of college age in localities having junior colleges cannot really imagine themselves in the situation that would exist if no junior college were available.

¹ Walter Crosby Eells, "Trends in Junior College Enrollment in California," *California Quarterly of Secondary Education*, IV (October, 1928), 65, 67.

As shown by the replies to the second question, approximately three-fourths (74.1 per cent) of the students feel that it is a distinct advantage to live at home while going to college, at least for the first two college years.

There is a greater degree of unanimity in the answers to the third question ("Do you feel that the quality of instruction you receive in junior college is superior to that in high school?") than in the answers to any other question in the entire study. Ninety-three per cent of the students feel that it is superior. It would be highly interesting if a similar comparison could be made with lower-division instruction in the universities.

The answers to the fourth and fifth questions are by no means so favorable to the junior college. Only one-fourth of the students feel that their college has the spirit, traditions, and general college atmosphere that it should have, and only slightly more than one-half feel that the social life is sufficient. It is possible that there is some halo effect; distance lends enchantment to the view. Possibly, if the dissatisfied Freshman were enrolled at a large university, he might suffer some disillusionment as to true "college atmosphere." Nevertheless, it is quite clear from the replies of the students that, if junior-college administrators wish to make their students better satisfied with their colleges and more loyal to them, the greatest possibilities lie in the further development of social life, spirit, traditions, and general college atmosphere. Undoubtedly, the students want, and expect, something more than a glorified high school. They want real college life when they enrol in the junior college.

The answers to the sixth question indicate that about two-thirds of the students feel that they have become acquainted with their instructors in ways "aside from ordinary classroom relationships." It should be noted, too, that 40 per cent of the students concerned were attending junior colleges of more than four hundred students.

The last question is, to a considerable extent, a summary of the entire study—"If you had free choice and were beginning your college work again, would you go to junior college in preference to a four-year institution?" Doubtless many could not do so, even if they wished, because of financial, home, or other conditions. For them alone, perhaps, the junior college is worth while. Nevertheless,

two-thirds of the entire group of students believe that, if they had free choice (which, of course, many would not have), they would choose the junior college again. This question is of such importance—summarizing, as it does, the entire investigation—that an analysis of the replies of various groups of students is shown in Figure 5. From this figure it is seen that the students in the district type of junior college are somewhat better satisfied than are the students in

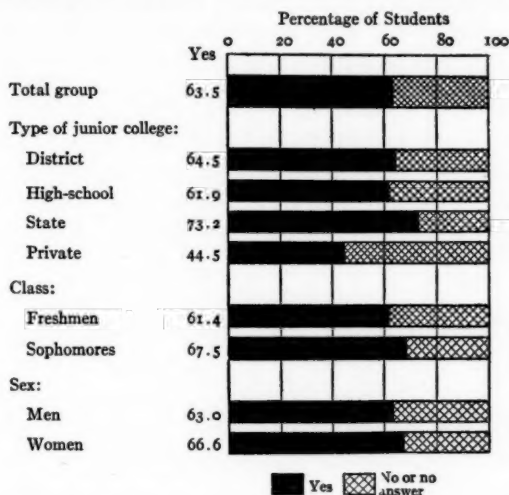


FIG. 5.—Analysis, by type of junior college, class, and sex, of replies to the question, "If you had free choice and were beginning your college work again, would you go to junior college in preference to a four-year institution?"

the smaller high-school type, that the women are better satisfied than are the men, that the Sophomores are better satisfied than are the Freshmen—the longer they stay in the junior college, the better they are satisfied and the surer they are that they would attend again if given the opportunity.

Advantages of the junior college.—Finally, after answering the definite questions, the students were asked to list what they consider the outstanding advantages and disadvantages of the junior college. In many cases the items listed indicate careful consideration of both favorable and unfavorable features as seen through student eyes.

TABLE IV
ADVANTAGES OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGE AS EXPRESSED BY
2,918 JUNIOR-COLLEGE STUDENTS

	Frequency of Mention
Instructional:	
Small classes.....	1,021
Individual help from instructors.....	736
Better instructors: teachers not specialists.....	54
More recitation and class discussion.....	53
More studying done in junior college.....	37
Students trained to study.....	30
Less danger of failing in courses.....	19
Junior college accredited by university.....	13
Easier to make good marks.....	7
Total.....	1,970
Financial:	
Possible to save money: no tuition, board, or room.....	1,149
Easier to get work.....	150
Free textbooks.....	12
Total.....	1,311
Size of institution:	
Personal contacts with faculty possible.....	405
More friendships possible: know everyone.....	376
Small school.....	82
Junior college democratic: all students in similar environment; no fraternities or cliques.....	26
Total.....	889
Home and community:	
Possible to live at, or be near, home: help at home.....	709
Friendships of high school, community, and family unbroken.....	44
Home influence: parents' advice, home training.....	38
Inadvisable to leave home because of youth.....	37
Acquainted in community, environment, church: small town.....	31
Community loyalty to a local institution.....	13
Total.....	872
Increased educational opportunity:	
Unrecommended students can go to college.....	188
More people able to go to college.....	169
High-school failures can be made up.....	79
Vocational training available.....	31

TABLE IV—*Continued*

	Frequency of Mention
Popularizes higher education.....	29
Provides terminal education.....	28
Easy to enter junior college.....	18
College failures can be made up.....	8
Total.....	550
Preparation for continuing education:	
Makes transition easier.....	214
Prepares better for upper-division work.....	169
Opportunity to find one's self, one's ability, vocation, and interests.....	76
Introduction to college.....	46
Background for specialization at the university.....	10
Total.....	515
Development through activity:	
Greater opportunity for extra-curriculum activities.....	221
More social life in school, community, and home.....	85
More athletic opportunities.....	64
Individual development: talents brought out.....	61
Opportunity for development of leadership.....	46
Total.....	477
Miscellaneous advantages:	
Fewer distractions.....	21
Supplies moral training.....	15
Eliminates those unfit for university work.....	14
Fewer temptations.....	4
Total.....	54
Grand total.....	6,638

On account of their great variety, the replies could not be treated as objectively as those previously reported, but much time and care have been spent in a careful classification and analysis of them. Altogether, forty-four advantages were distinguished; these were mentioned 6,638 times by the students in twenty-seven of the twenty-eight colleges involved. A summary of the advantages, arranged in eight general groups, is presented in Table IV. So far as feasible, the student phrasing is retained. It is possible that the students were somewhat influenced by items listed in the questionnaire as reasons for attending junior college.

TABLE V
DISADVANTAGES OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGE AS EXPRESSED BY
2,918 JUNIOR-COLLEGE STUDENTS

	Frequency of Mention
Academic limitations:	
Variety of courses limited.....	421
Poor instructors.....	169
Lacks prestige: only a secondary school.....	68
Low scholarship standing: too informal.....	50
Lacks contacts with specialists.....	21
Too much work under one professor: professors too heavily loaded.....	17
Does not secure noted speakers.....	8
Total.....	754
No college atmosphere, spirit, life, color, or traditions.....	709
Association with high school:	
Too much contact with high school.....	292
Same plant, campus, and equipment.....	77
High-school teaching method used: no lecture method.....	40
Discipline and rules like those of high school.....	34
High-school teachers in junior college.....	34
Bothered by high-school pupils.....	30
Total.....	507
Activity limitations:	
Lack of social life: social life shared with high-school pupils.....	243
Limited variety of activities: no band, drama, etc.....	76
No athletics to speak of; no military training.....	59
No fraternities or sororities.....	58
Total.....	436
Environmental and cultural limitations:	
Self-reliance not developed: lack experience of "being on one's own".....	114
Lack contact with students from other regions.....	72
Friendships limited: meet no new types of people.....	60
No new, broadening experiences.....	51
No chance to gain poise, polish, and culture.....	51
Small town: provincial atmosphere.....	32
Too much restriction and discipline.....	11
Too long on one campus.....	10
No feeling of progress.....	5
Total.....	406

TABLE V—*Continued*

	Frequency of Mention
Limited equipment:	
Lacks general equipment, laboratories, and other facilities..	199
Lacks library facilities.....	67
Small buildings; crowded conditions; no campus.....	42
No place to study: classes in library.....	16
No dormitory for students living away from home.....	10
Total.....	334
Student relationships:	
Contact with too many inferior students: too many un- recommended students.....	71
Lack of loyalty, unity, and co-operation.....	42
No contacts with older students.....	34
Poor attitudes toward work—not serious or studious: no goal.....	33
Prejudices among students and faculty.....	23
Lack of competition.....	18
Total.....	221
Transition difficulties:	
Breaks college unity: students must meet new friends and professors and make new adjustments.....	116
Transfer difficulties.....	36
University work harder after easy work in junior college..	23
Breaks friendships.....	23
Total.....	198
Home limitations:	
Living at home makes college life and study more difficult..	66
Too much parental interference: "tied to apron strings"....	13
Commuting hard on studies.....	13
Not serious around parents; actions repressed.....	4
Total.....	96
Miscellaneous disadvantages:	
Partiality in grading: teachers have pets.....	16
Intimacies with faculty lower standards.....	5
High-school reputations hold students down: no new start	2
Total.....	23
Grand total.....	3,684

Disadvantages of the junior college.—Even more interesting to the administrator who wishes to make his junior college a better institu-

tion in the eyes of his students are the forty-nine disadvantages pointed out by the students in the junior colleges included in this study. These disadvantages were mentioned a total of 3,684 times, about half as often as the advantages but still with sufficient variety and frequency to warrant careful study. A summary of these disadvantages appears in Table V.

Conclusion.—Such is a composite view of the junior college in California as seen through the eyes of more than three thousand of its students. Such a picture has its limitations. The opinions expressed may be in many cases immature or biased. One cannot expect Senior or graduate wisdom at the Freshman or Sophomore level. In a few years opinions may change materially. However, opinion as expressed is probably to a large extent honest and sincere and a true cross-section of the average of present student thought; and we are most interested in the opinion of the junior-college student while he is still a student in this institution. His opinion is likely to have important influence with his parents and with friends and acquaintances in the high school. On the whole, the opinion as expressed is distinctly favorable to the junior college but not blindly or unconditionally so. Much careful discrimination is shown. There are keen comments on recognized shortcomings of the junior college—some incidental to a small institution in its immaturity, some perhaps more fundamental.

EVALUATING BOOKS ON VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

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Three methods have been followed in determining the merits of books or literary selections for school use or in ascertaining their proper grade placement. By the first method, which was used almost exclusively until recent years, the unaided judgment of an individual or a committee determines the course of study. The workers borrow freely the judgments represented in other courses of study, with the result that reading matter has usually been located in the curriculum by custom. This method is based on the unwarranted assumption that prevailing practice is right. It would be interesting to know, for example, why Coleridge's *The Rime of the Ancient Mariner*, now considered an eleventh- or twelfth-grade poem by many expert teachers of literature, has been taught in the ninth grade for twenty-five years.

A more recent method of determining the merits or the grade placement of books is the use of the assembled judgments of a group of workers who are considered to be capable of rendering reliable opinions. Moreover, by means of more or less adequate score cards, the scrutiny of the co-operating experts is directed along specific lines, determined by themselves or by others in advance of their examination of the books. The opinions of the experts are pooled, and a central tendency of judgment is reached, which is assumed to be better than an individual decision. This procedure was followed by Starbuck and his colleagues in reaching their recent pronouncements as to literature most efficacious in character-training¹ and by Franzen and Knight in formulating their score cards for the appraisal of textbooks.²

¹ Edwin D. Starbuck, assisted by Frank K. Shuttleworth and Others, *Fairy Tale, Myth, and Legend*, pp. 31-36. A Guide to Literature for Character Training, Volume I. New York: Macmillan Co., 1928. Pp. xiv+390.

² R. H. Franzen and F. B. Knight, *Textbook Selection*, p. 10. Baltimore: Warwick & York, Inc., 1922.

A third procedure, which, theoretically at least, ought to yield more reliable data than the opinions secured by the two foregoing methods, exposes the books to children at various grade levels and attempts to ascertain the reactions of the children both as to their understanding of the books and as to their enjoyment and appreciation of the books. Crow¹ and Washburne and Vogel² have employed this method. The greater objectivity of this procedure is obvious. Considerable skepticism has been expressed, however, concerning the questionable statistical treatment that has been applied to the rough data in determining the ultimate conclusions.

The first step in the investigation here reported was the assembling of one hundred books commonly listed in junior and senior high school curriculums as aids to vocational guidance. Even a cursory examination of these books indicated wide variations among them in fulness of information, in accuracy, in difficulty, in rhetorical excellence, in adaptability for school use, in date of publication, and in other characteristics. The discovery was made, also, that certain books were being recommended for vocational classes in the first year of the junior high school, for pupils in the twelfth grade, and even for adult readers. While some seventh-grade pupils are more capable of reading a given book than are many adult readers, a decision as to the suitability of a book for a certain grade, determined by some reliable standard, ought to be of material assistance to librarians and to curriculum-makers.

The present investigation consists in the application of the second and third methods of determining the merits of books described in earlier paragraphs to books intended for vocational guidance. This article reports the making of a score card and the use of that score card by 103 judges with respect to twenty-six representative books on vocational guidance, which in the opinion of the writers are most suitable for ninth-grade classes. The evaluation of these twenty-six books by the method herein described is presented in Table I. A later article will report the results of a tryout of the

¹ Charles Sumner Crow, *Evaluation of English Literature in the High School*, pp. 29-35. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 141. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1924. Pp. vi+172.

² Carleton Washburne and Mabel Vogel, *Winnetka Graded Book List*, pp. 11-14. Chicago: American Library Association, 1926. Pp. 286.

same books with groups of ninth-grade pupils and will indicate the extent to which the results reached by pooled judgments of experts using a score card coincide with the results derived from observation and measurement of children's reactions.

A preliminary score card was made by assembling the various standards found in printed documents concerning the merits of books on vocational and educational guidance. This score card was tested and revised in two ways. The major and minor items of the card and the numerical values assigned to them represent the group judgment of twenty experts in vocational guidance and in children's reading. Emphasis is laid here on the co-operative judgment of competent workers in contrast with the judgment of one person, which is the common basis of score cards. The attention of the experts was called to the fact that the score card is not intended for biographies, such as Pupin's *From Immigrant to Inventor*, but is designed to direct judgments with respect to books usually considered strictly vocational, such as Weaver and Byler's *Profitable Vocations for Boys*, when read for the purpose of vocational enlightenment by children of approximately the age of ninth-grade pupils. The experts were asked to indicate the relative importance of content, mechanical makeup, and composition and rhetoric. The composite of the various judgments constituted in general the final form of the score card.

One of the experts raised a point which indicates clearly the danger of placing too much confidence in any score card. "I believe that the ratings of the various items would vary according to the ages [and experiences] of the pupils. . . . For a IX B pupil much more value should be given [than for a twelfth-grade pupil] to the mechanical makeup, composition and rhetoric, and the arrangement and organization of the material." This statement, perhaps, is correct, as is also the obvious comment that the items under "Content" show a certain amount of overlapping.

All the experts, having an average ninth-grade pupil in mind, seemed to feel that the adequacy, the reliability, the recency, and the representativeness of the information concerning the vocation or vocations treated should be given primary consideration. Further, some indicated that for ninth-grade pupils a desirable book

ought to lay stress on the traits, abilities, and interests that a competent worker in the field must possess. Other experts felt that the interest value of a book to the reader is a very significant item.

In addition to such general suggestions, the experts named other items that were included in the final form of the score card. On their recommendation, other items were omitted from the original form. All felt that some qualities of excellence are too intangible to be definitely specified by any one category. How, for example, can "style," in its literary meaning, undoubtedly a very significant feature of any book, be estimated in terms of percentage?

Revision of the original score card was based also on a tryout of the card with thirty judges, all of whom were graduate students in the University of Chicago in the field of counseling and most of whom were actually employed as teachers of vocational guidance or kindred subjects in or near Chicago. Fifteen of these judges scored *Profitable Vocations for Boys* by E. W. Weaver and J. Frank Byler. Fifteen scored *Vocations for Girls* by Mary A. Laselle and Katherine E. Wiley. These two books were selected for the preliminary tryout of the score card because they are frequently recommended and are usually found in the vocational reading lists for the junior high school grades. The numerical values assigned to the different items of the final card were modified in some cases where a change seemed more in keeping with the average appraisals given by the thirty judges to the two type books.¹

The score card in its final form is shown on pages 195-96.

¹ An adequate statement of the purpose, of the limitations, and of the value of a score card in any field is made by Franzen and Knight (*Textbook Selection*, p. 16):

"Score cards or rating schemes of one kind or another are generally used to get in orderly fashion expert opinion. Many decisions in practical school affairs will have to be based on opinion rather than [on] other data for some time to come. Whenever this is the case, it becomes exceedingly important to obtain the best opinion in the best way possible. By best opinion we mean the judgment not only of those who know most about the matter but of enlightened judges who take the trouble to make the best judgment they can make. Here is where the score card is of value. Opinion expressed through score-card ratings will not give insight the judge himself does not possess, but opinion expressed through score-card ratings has a better chance of being opinion up to the limit of insight than analyzed opinion has. . . . Analyzed opinion through score-card methods increases the chances of a judge to get all his goods to market. The better the score card, the better his judgment will be. . . . Its use makes judgment better because it forces the judge to consider many aspects of his problem he might otherwise neglect."

SCORE CARD FOR ESTIMATING THE VALUE OF A VOCATIONAL BOOK USED FOR INDIVIDUAL READING

Name of author _____ Title of book _____

Scorer's name _____

Directions.—Examine the book, keeping in mind an average ninth-grade reader. Then examine the entire score card and begin by making your estimate of the three major numerical items—1, 2, 3. Write your estimates for the book you are appraising immediately below the numbers in the left-hand column of the card; finally adjust the sub-items in the right-hand columns as you think appropriate for the book in hand. Be sure to keep 1,000 points as a total, and accurate adjustments of all subtotals.

1. Content: Does the book adequately inform, interest, and inspire the reader?.....	800		
a) Occupational information: Is the book adequate in the following respects?.....		400	
(1) Is the description of the work reliable; that is, is it up to date, representative, and accurate?.....			150
(2) Does it present both the advantages and the disadvantages or the difficulties to be overcome?.....			75
(3) Does it explain the preparation necessary for success?.....			50
(4) Does it set forth the personal qualities necessary for success as well as the personal traits that might handicap?.....			75
(5) Does it cover probable financial return, chances for advancement, and social standing of the worker?.....			50
b) Reader's interest: Does the book arouse and sustain the reader's interest?.....		150	
(1) Is it rich in incidents, examples, concrete situations?.....			50
(2) Does it show the romance, adventure, and contest of the occupation?.....			25
(3) Is the content reasonably within the capacity of a reader of average intelligence?.....			50
(4) Does it stimulate to first-hand investigation of the subject?.....			25
c) Appreciations and ideals: Does the book tend to create desirable attitudes?.....		250	
(1) Does it present in a dignified and reserved manner the values of the work to society?.....			50
(2) Does it broaden the reader's sympathy for, and understanding of, the workers, showing the dignity of labor?.....			50
(3) Does it help to develop in the reader's mind genuine standards for estimating success in one's life-work?.....			50
(4) Does it stimulate the reader to a personal forward-looking program, helping establish self-appraisal and life-career motives?.....			100
2. Mechanical makeup: Is the book convenient and attractive?.....	100		
a) Size and appearance.....		50	
(1) Is the size suitable for easy handling?.....			25
(2) Is the volume light and flexible, considering its size?.....			15
(3) Is the color pleasing?.....			10

SCORE CARD—Continued

2. Mechanical makeup—Continued			
b) Printing and page arrangement.....	50		25
(1) Is the paper of good quality?.....			10
(2) Are the length of line and the margins conducive to easy reading?.....			15
(3) Is the type legible and the inking distinct?.....			
3. Composition and rhetoric: Is the book written simply, clearly, attractively?.....	100		
a) Vocabulary: What is the degree of technicality and difficulty?.....	50		25
(1) What is the range of vocabulary? (The number of different words in 1,000 should be about 500.).....			25
(2) What is the number of uncommon words? (The number of uncommon words should not exceed 30-40 per 1,000, not found in Thorndike's list of commonest words.).....			10
b) Sentences: Are they appropriate in structure and length?.....	25		15
(1) What is the proportion of simple sentences? (Should be about one-third of the total number of sentences.).....			10
(2) What is the average length of sentences? (Sentence length should be about 25 words, as estimated by 25 sentences selected at random on 25 different pages.).....			15
c) Paragraphs: Are they of reasonable length and well connected?.....	25		10
(1) What is the average number of paragraphs per page? (Should average approximately 3-5 per page of ordinary size.).....			15
(2) Is the coherence between paragraphs adequate? (The thought should be clearly sequential and progressive.)....			10

General estimate as to grade placement: Check your judgment as to the level of readers for whom the book is best suited: Junior high school (), Senior high school (), Adults ()

General estimate as to the value of the book as a whole for the readers indicated above: Excellent (), Good (), Fair (), Poor ()

The co-operation of 103 teachers of vocational guidance and kindred subjects was secured in applying the score card to the following twenty-six books.

1. Allen, Frederick J. *Advertising as a Vocation*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1924. Pp. xxii+180.
2. Babson, Roger W. *Making Good in Business*. New York: Fleming H. Revell Co., 1921. Pp. 176.
3. Barnard, J. Lynn (compiler and editor). *Getting a Living*. Philadelphia: Franklin Publishing and Supply Co., 1921. Pp. 204.
4. Black, Harold Garnet (compiler and editor). *Paths to Success*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1924. Pp. x+304.
5. Donnelly, Harold I. *What Shall I Do with My Life?* Philadelphia: Westminster Press, 1927. Pp. 248.
6. Ernst, Clayton H. (editor). *What Shall I Be?* New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1924. Pp. xii+252.
7. Filene, Catherine (editor). *Careers for Women*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920. Pp. xvi+576.

8. Hall, S. Roland. *How To Get a Position and How To Keep It*. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co., 1925. Pp. 140.
9. Harris, Franklin Stewart. *The Young Man and His Vocation*. Boston: Richard G. Badger, Publisher, 1916. Pp. 204.
10. Hawksworth, Hallam. *What Are You Going To Be?* New York: Century Co., 1924. Pp. xvi+246.
11. Hill, Howard C. *Vocational Civics*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1928. Pp. xvi+366.
12. Hoerle, Helen Christene, and Saltzberg, Florence B. *The Girl and the Job*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1919. Pp. xvi+266.
13. Horton, Douglas. *Out into Life*. New York: Abingdon Press, 1924. Pp. 284.
14. Jackson, Bennett B., Deming, Norma H., and Bemis, Katharine I. *Opportunities of Today for Boys and Girls*. New York: Century Co., 1921. Pp. xii+274.
15. Jackson, William Marvin. *What Men Do*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1925. Pp. x+298.
16. Kilduff, Edward Jones. *The Private Secretary: The Duties and Opportunities of the Position*. New York: Century Co., 1924. Pp. vi+388.
17. Lapp, John A., and Mote, Carl H. *Learning To Earn: A Plea and a Plan for Vocational Education*. Indianapolis, Indiana: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1915. Pp. 422.
18. Laselle, Mary A., and Wiley, Katherine E. *Vocations for Girls*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1913. Pp. x+140.
19. Lyon, Leverett S. *Making a Living*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. Pp. xii+622.
20. Rollins, Frank West. *What Can a Young Man Do?* Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1907. Pp. 340.
21. Smith, Henry Louis. *Your Biggest Job: School or Business*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1920. Pp. xii+80.
22. Toland, Edward D. *Choosing the Right Career*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1925. Pp. xiv+222.
23. Wanger, Ruth. *What Girls Can Do*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1926. Pp. viii+294.
24. Weaver, E. W. *Profitable Vocations for Girls*. Chicago: Laidlaw Bros., 1922. Pp. x+212.
25. Weaver, E. W., and Byler, J. Frank. *Profitable Vocations for Boys*. Chicago: Laidlaw Bros., 1924. Pp. iv+282.
26. Wilbur, Mary Aronetta. *Every-Day Business for Women*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1910. Pp. xiv+276.

Table I shows the results of the rating of the books by the 103 teachers. The numbers used in referring to the books correspond to those in the preceding list. The first line of Table I indicates the number of teachers who scored each book, while the body of the

TABLE I
VALUES OF TWENTY-SIX VOCATIONAL BOOKS AS DETERMINED BY FIVE OR MORE TEACHERS

	STAND- ARD	BOOKS												
		I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Number of teachers.....														
1. Content.....														
a) Occupational information.....	800	649	725	628	566	570	657	670	689	664	618	782	701	604
b) Reader's interest.....	400	325	307	301	252	260	324	354	331	297	288	308	348	340
c) Appreciations and ideals.....	150	126	131	131	110	98	134	121	100	131	139	140	113	132
d) Mechanical makeup.....	250	108	227	106	204	212	190	105	108	226	101	244	200	232
2. Size and appearance.....														
a) Size and appearance.....	100	94	93	100	88	89	98	89	90	97	96	94	94	92
b) Printing and page arrangement.....	50	47	48	50	40	48	50	41	45	50	48	48	48	45
c) Composition and rhetoric.....	100	47	45	50	48	41	48	48	45	47	48	46	46	47
3. Vocabulary.....														
a) Vocabulary.....	50	45	45	45	49	46	47	38	45	43	48	47	47	45
b) Sentences.....	25	22	23	22	22	22	23	17	20	22	24	22	23	22
c) Paragraphs.....	25	23	22	23	22	22	23	20	20	23	24	25	23	27
Total.....	1,000	833	908	818	747	749	848	834	864	839	810	970	888	880
		BOOKS												
Number of teachers.....														
1. Content.....														
a) Occupational information.....	800	627	521	746	447	605	714	672	700	530	697	579	641	400
b) Reader's interest.....	400	300	239	386	257	321	340	342	342	229	358	280	303	186
c) Appreciations and ideals.....	150	127	114	140	99	125	140	125	136	126	127	121	124	115
d) Mechanical makeup.....	250	200	108	226	91	218	228	205	222	175	212	178	214	105
2. Size and appearance.....														
a) Size and appearance.....	100	93	94	98	92	94	89	97	94	96	100	90	95	93
b) Printing and page arrangement.....	50	45	49	48	48	43	47	48	48	50	47	48	47	47
c) Composition and rhetoric.....	100	48	45	50	44	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46
3. Vocabulary.....														
a) Vocabulary.....	50	41	45	50	44	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46
b) Sentences.....	50	47	44	48	45	47	48	47	48	47	50	45	47	45
c) Paragraphs.....	25	22	22	23	23	23	22	22	23	23	18	22	23	18
Total.....	1,000	811	704	938	679	852	895	858	890	720	888	750	870	577

table presents the averages of the scores assigned by the several teachers to the major items of the score card in the case of each of the twenty-six books. The totals of the averages shown in the last line of the table represent the values of the various books.

The highest total for any book is 970; the lowest, 577. The inference, so far as this investigation is reliable, is that for ninth-grade pupils Book 11 is the best in the list for reading in vocational guidance and that Book 26 is the least appropriate. Nineteen of the books studied show totals of more than 800 out of a possible 1,000 points. In general, the books which rank highest have the following characteristics.

1. They deal with several kinds of vocational interest.
2. They present concretely, often with pictures, the attractiveness of vocations.
3. They treat the elements of personal success; they present concrete experiences of men and women.
4. They are recent books, with up-to-date facts.
5. They are written in narrative or expository form; several are biographical in character.
6. They emphasize the social values of the occupations.
7. They are written by authors who know boys and girls as well as they know the subject matter.

The facts presented in Table I show that the greatest variations among the twenty-six books are in subject matter. Variations in judgments as to content are in part accounted for by the fact that the judges evaluated the books in terms of the interests and abilities of the average ninth-grade pupil. A publication thoroughly adequate for one group of readers may be quite unsuited to another group. Several of the books that show low totals because they are rated low in content are well-written, reliable books intended primarily for adult readers. Likewise, some of the books with high ratings in content are written in a style that would be entirely unsuited to mature readers.

The suitability of the content of a book for any grade level is best measured by the reactions of pupils at that grade level. Therefore, the final step in measuring the effectiveness of the score card and the relative value of the several books is an evaluation of the books by ninth-grade pupils. This step will be reported in a later article.

THE CASE METHOD IN THE TEACHING OF PROBLEMS OF DEMOCRACY

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In view of the wide circulation of the Report of the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association, it would hardly seem necessary to explain how New Jersey came to have a course in problems in American democracy. For the benefit of those who are not familiar with the report, the following paragraphs are quoted.

Is it not time, in this field as in history, "to take up the whole problem afresh, freed . . . from the impressions of" the traditional social sciences? . . .

The only feasible way the committee can see by which to satisfy in reasonable measure the demands of the several social sciences while maintaining due regard for the requirements of secondary education is to organize instruction not on the basis of the formal social sciences but on the basis of concrete problems of vital importance to society and of immediate interest to the pupil. . . .

The purposes of secondary education and not the intrinsic value of any particular body of knowledge should be the determining consideration. From the standpoint of the purposes of secondary education, it is far less important that the adolescent youth should acquire a comprehensive knowledge of any or all of the social sciences than it is that he should be given experience and practice in the observation of social phenomena as he encounters them, that he should be brought to understand that every social problem is many-sided and complex, and that he should acquire the habit of forming social judgments only on the basis of dispassionate consideration of all the facts available. This, the committee believes, can best be accomplished by dealing with actual situations as they occur and by drafting into service the materials of all the social sciences as occasion demands for a thorough understanding of the situations in question.¹

In order that the proper point of view should be presented to the pupils in high school, the State Department of Public Instruction of New Jersey in 1919 urged the legislature to pass a law requiring that

¹ *The Social Studies in Secondary Education*, pp. 53, 56. Report of the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association. Compiled by Arthur William Dunn. Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 28, 1916.

instruction in problems in American democracy be offered in the third or fourth year of the high school and that sixty full hours of instruction in this subject be given in the year selected. In 1920 a committee of New Jersey educators prepared a syllabus to assist teachers in the presentation of this subject. The following significant paragraphs are quoted from this syllabus.

It goes without saying that young people should be taught to think about the vital questions of the day, many of which they will be called upon to consider when they become voters. . . .

In this country we need vastly more thinking about matters suggested in the outline and about related problems. In many aspects of these problems it is hard to say, of course, where the truth lies, but we shall never reach the truth unless an attempt is made to find it. The main thing is to get our young people interested and stimulate them to discuss these questions so that they will have, later on, a little more intelligence concerning them.¹

No subject offered in the high school, with the possible exception of English, offers more vital training for real life than does the course in problems in American democracy when it is properly taught. Since it is given in the Junior or Senior year, it should be a review and a gathering-together of all the valuable truths which have been presented in the social sciences during the earlier years. It should present training in understanding and solving the great political, social, and economic problems of the day as nearly as possible in the same circumstances in which they are met in real life.

Wherever possible, the pupils should be given the opportunity to pursue the course for five periods a week for a full year. If this schedule is not possible, the next best arrangement is five periods a week for a half-year. In many schools the college-preparatory curriculum is so crowded that it has been found necessary to curtail the course to two periods a week during the Senior year or to combine American history and problems in American democracy into one course. To curtail the number of periods is a very unsatisfactory method of presenting any course to high-school pupils because the length of time between periods makes it difficult for the teacher to hold the interest of the pupils. When American history is combined with problems in American democracy in a college-preparatory course,

¹ *Problems in American Democracy*, pp. 3-4. High School Series, No. 8. Trenton, New Jersey: State Department of Public Instruction, 1920.

the latter will be slighted, although the recent requirement with regard to civics will necessitate emphasis on problems in civics.

The teacher who is beginning to teach problems in American democracy will equip himself with the New Jersey syllabus referred to; *Syllabus of Social Studies for Secondary Schools, Part Two*, issued by the State Department of Public Instruction of New Jersey in February, 1925; Ammarell's *Workbook and Study Outline for Problems of American Democracy*;¹ the Pennsylvania syllabus;² and the textbook which will best meet the needs of the local situation. The syllabuses will give the teacher an idea of the problems which might well be included in the course and valuable suggestions for reference reading.

After having become familiar with the fundamental political, social, and economic problems contained in the various syllabuses, the teacher will select problems according to their timeliness. The approach should always be concerned with a current issue, either local or national. In order to present the subject properly, it is absolutely essential to devote one day a week to current events. The systematic study of newspapers and periodicals will stimulate interest and will make it possible to bring the material in the textbook up to date.

In the course in problems in American democracy definite current problems should be presented, not merely so much civics, sociology, and economics. Should our city adopt the city-manager plan of government? Is American family life deteriorating, or is it merely in a state of transition? Should the tariff commission be given a greater share in tariff-making? Should hydro-electric power be developed by the government or by private capital? Should the United States enter the World Court and the League of Nations? Is the power of the federal government being enlarged too much at the expense of the states? Who is responsible for the high cost of living? What should be done about consolidations and mergers in the field of big business? The presentation of such problems is similar to the case

¹ Raymond R. Ammarell, *Workbook and Study Outline for Problems of American Democracy*. Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Co., 1928 (revised).

² *Syllabus on Problems of Democracy*. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: State Department of Public Instruction, 1923.

method of teaching law and other subjects in the university. In short, it is teaching "concrete problems of vital importance to society and of immediate interest to the pupil."

In assigning a lesson in the textbook, the teacher should give a short talk in order to explain difficult sections, to point out the most important sections, and to stimulate interest by linking the particular problem with current events. The next day the pupils should recite on fundamentals, and the teacher should explain the phases of the problem with which the pupils have had difficulty. The third day should be used for class reports and drill. The fourth day should be devoted to a class discussion, with a pupil presiding as chairman. The teacher should remain in the background and not interfere in the discussion unless a glaring misstatement of fact is unchallenged or the class wanders too far afield. Older teachers will not find it easy to keep quiet, for the more a person knows about a subject, the more difficult it is for him to refrain from expressing his ideas. The chairman, with the help of the teacher, should prepare in advance four or five propositions for discussion which will aid in making logical progress toward a solution of the problem acceptable to the majority of the class. The teacher should never attempt to force his own conclusions on the class. If he does so, he will soon find the class aligned against him on every question, or the pupils will soon discover the hobbies the teacher rides and will consider it amusing to cheer on the rider. The fifth day should be devoted to a gathering-up of odds and ends and to a written lesson on the problem. The sixth day should be spent in a study of current events.

Other means of stimulating interest in the subject and of preparing the pupils for the duties of citizenship are: (1) visits to a meeting of the city council, to a large bakery, to the penitentiary, and to the stock exchange; (2) a mock trial; (3) dramatization of the Webster-Hayne debate or a hearing on legislation or the tariff; (4) conversion of an oral review into a baseball game by having the teacher the pitcher and the pupils the batters; (5) a "bee," with the class divided into two teams answering questions asked by the teacher; (6) a problem exercise in which each pupil proceeds at his own rate in finding a solution and writing a brief to support his conclusion.

The question of reference reading arises in connection with every

social-studies course. The requirement of an hour or two of reference reading in the library every week offers valuable training in learning how and where to look for information. At the end of each chapter in all the better textbooks there are complete lists of supplementary reading material with page references. However, in most schools limited library facilities, the desire to devote one period a week to current events, and the demands made on the pupils' time by extra-curriculum activities will necessitate the adoption of some other plan for reference reading.

Some teachers require the pupils to prepare two formal essays dealing with definite problems of democracy. An essay of this type should be two thousand words in length and should be accompanied by a bibliography and an outline. A great deal of care is necessary in order to prevent pupils from merely copying from reference books and from other essays.

Teachers will probably prefer to have available enough copies of a good book of reference readings to permit its use in class. Such a book of reference readings should contain selections which present valuable information not contained in the textbook. The selections should be so interesting that the pupils will enjoy reading the material assigned for reference as much as they enjoy reading about current events. The books should be read in class so that comment can be made by the pupils and the teacher. The pupils should feel perfectly free to ask for explanation of difficult words or passages. By way of review, the pupils should write in notebooks outlines of the reading or the answers to the review questions at the end of the chapter. As school life becomes more complex and more of the pupils' time is required for valuable extra-curriculum activities, the type of reference reading described will become increasingly popular.

A course in problems in American democracy organized and presented in such a way as to deal with all sides of controversial issues now before the American people should certainly help the young citizen to prepare himself for active citizenship. It should make him familiar with the most important problems of the day. It should impress on him the fact that there are at least two sides to every question. It should develop respect for the points of view of other people. It should give the pupil training in reasoning as well as

training in parliamentary procedure and in the expression of his views before a group.

When the results are contrasted with these ideals, the teacher will be disappointed to find how far short of the mark his teaching has fallen. At first, bigotry and prejudice will crop out in the discussions. The pupils will repeat parrot-like the information secured from the textbook. Conclusions obvious to the teacher will at times wholly escape the class. Only about 20 per cent of the pupils will really try to reason things out for themselves; the others will look around for a leader whom they can follow. A few will do most of the talking and say little. However, as the weeks go by, these difficulties will be less and less in evidence. The teacher will occasionally be startled by the maturity of thought of some of the pupils. He will have the pleasure of watching brains at work in the give-and-take of discussion. He will look forward fifteen or twenty years and picture the young people as lawyers, society women, legislators, scientists, educators, and business men and women; he will see them defending their views against all comers.

The course in problems in American democracy has proved its worth. At the present time twenty-three states make some provision for courses in problems in American democracy, and in four states—Kansas, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee—the subject is required for graduation from high school.¹ In most of the other states the more progressive secondary schools are teaching civics, government, sociology, and economics in such a way as to show the application of the theory to definite problems. Many of the state teachers' colleges in the West are offering courses in problems in American democracy in order to give teachers a proper background for the teaching of current events and the social studies. Finally, the number of colleges accepting the subject for college entrance is increasing. The teaching of problems in American democracy is another example of the manner in which the public schools are on the alert to reorganize subject matter so that the young people may be better prepared for the serious business of life.

¹ R. M. Tryon, "Thirteen Years of Problems of American Democracy in the Senior High School," *Historical Outlook*, XX (December, 1929), 380-83.

SOME PROBLEMS RELATING TO EXPLORATORY COURSES

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Anyone who has been experimenting, or watching the experimentation of others, in the reorganization of the curriculum of the junior high school will agree that the term "exploratory courses" needs careful definition. Some unnecessary "muddling through" has been caused by confusion in its use.

It is generally agreed that there are three conditions which must be met by an exploratory course. (1) It must reveal to the pupil a previously unexplored, useful field of study or sphere of work. (2) It must have content immediately worth while and justifiable in itself. (3) It must discover capacities or incapacities previously hidden and build new interests in the pupil.

From the very beginning of the junior high school, the exploratory purpose has been a cardinal purpose. The three conditions mentioned are pedagogically justifiable and are entirely worth striving for. Why is it, then, that reports of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and other organizations bewail the fact that "general" courses are but slowly being introduced into the junior high schools? Why is it that schools which have experimented for years with general mathematics are returning to arithmetic and algebra? The implication of the reports that this slow progress is due to inertia or to worship of the traditional can be only partly true.

The fundamental cause of dissatisfaction lies in the fact that many so-called "general" courses, when put to the test, fail to meet the conditions for exploratory work which have been laid down. Some build interests in pupils without revealing incapacities; some reveal future lines of work without awakening a desire to pursue them; some fulfil two of the conditions but fail completely to pro-

vide content immediately worth while and justifiable in itself; some have justifiable content that reveals no interests; others have justifiable content but content that is handled, or can be handled, as well or better in courses already existing. Experiences with courses of this kind have chilled the ardor of administrative officers for continuing the battle against traditional courses. Is the condition hopeless; or is exploration, as a successful educational activity, limited to a few courses, such as general science and industrial arts?

There are two entirely different methods of exploration, and it appears that the failure to distinguish between them—to recognize the uses and limitations of each—is the source of the difficulty. In one method the procedure is to provide actual samples of the activity. The pupil really does some of the things which he will do when he enters his chosen field of endeavor, or he studies lessons like the lessons that a future course assigns. He studies *in* the field, not *about* it. The primary purpose, of course, is to find out whether he likes the samples and whether the doing of them reveals any capacity or builds up any interest. Such a course is valuable in its concreteness. If the samples are truly representative, there is no doubt that the result will be a real tryout of the course and of the pupil in the course, and there should be no doubt as to whether the primary aim of the course is attained. There are two dangers in such a course. In the first place, the sampling may be misleading, for a part of an activity or a condensation of an activity may not be truly representative. For example, a short experience in a new field may be exceedingly interesting, not because the subject matter is inherently attractive or is adapted to the pupil, but merely because it is novel. Again, a sample must often include only the *introductory* work in a field and, consequently, may not give a fair picture of the work to come later, either as to its character or as to its exactions. The obvious fact that spurious samples are misleading would not be mentioned here were it not that some general textbooks have failed for this very reason: they presented the work as it perhaps ought to be but not as it is. That succeeding courses or life-activities ought to be reorganized is beside the point. The second danger in such courses is that they may have little inherent value. A sample of plane geometry or of Latin, for instance, adds

little either to a pupil's fund of information about the world or to his mental development.

Typical examples of exploratory courses of this kind are tryout courses in industrial arts and in foreign languages. The former have been generally successful; the latter, often total failures. The work in industrial courses divides itself into projects which, when completed, give a real sample of all such work and themselves provide valuable experiences. In addition, such projects provide valuable concomitant learning of two kinds: in the first place, they develop the so-called "instinct for workmanship" and provide an opportunity for instilling such traits as accuracy; in the second place, they provide an insight into the whole field of industry. The tryout courses in foreign languages, however, have had disadvantages: (1) The false social glamor of foreign-language study, as well as the striking novelty of the work, has awakened spurious interest. (2) The short sampling of introductory work has not been representative of the more prosaic and involved later work, which really tries the interests and capacities. (3) The introductory work, when it is a true sample of the work done in a given school, too often has very little inherent value.^{*}

The second type of exploratory course (the one to which the word "exploratory" more properly belongs) represents an attempt to introduce a new field by giving a simple, general survey of the field as a whole in order to lay open the field and to enable the pupil to orient himself in it. The pupil studies *about* the field rather than *in* it. Such a course, to be sure, often reveals the field more fairly than a sampling would, but the main purpose is to give the pupil an insight into a field of human endeavor—an insight which is educationally justifiable in itself and only incidentally propaedeutic. Such a course is pedagogically and psychologically sound as a prerequisite for specialized courses and—what is more important—is peculiarly adapted to the mental capacities of the early adolescent. The dangers in such courses are that they may not reveal specifically enough future activities nor discover specific interests and that they may be so general as to be vague or difficult of comprehension.

In this connection, the experience with general-science courses

^{*} Compare Walter Kaulfers, "Observations on the Question of General Language," *School Review*, XXXVI (April, 1928), 275-83.

has been illuminating. General science started out to be a tryout course in the sciences, and samples of biology, physical geography, chemistry, etc., were presented in order. After some experimentation with such courses, they were found to suffer from the disadvantages mentioned. Moreover, it was felt that the greatest contributions an introductory course in science could make were to provide an insight into nature as a whole, to give an understanding of the scientific attitude toward the natural environment, and to arouse an appreciation of science as human achievement. Courses organized with the purpose of emphasizing these contributions were immediately successful. They have won a permanent place in junior high school curriculums and, in addition, have proved entirely satisfactory in discovering interests and capacities for future science study.

General-language courses, floundering about precariously as tryout courses, usually did not courageously discard their first form but tried to combine the two methods, with the result that their second state was worse than their first. It may be possible to have real tryout courses in foreign languages if they are prepared especially for the school system in which they are to serve as samples. However, in any genuine sense, such courses will not be courses in general language; at best, they will be courses in general foreign language. If general language is to win a place on its own merits, it must profit by the experience of general science and present a simple, unified perspective of the field of language as the most important of human contrivings.

General-business courses are at present in a peculiarly chaotic and unsatisfactory state. Curriculum-makers cannot decide whether these courses should be mere samples of future specialized commercial courses, collections of isolated bits of intrinsically valuable business practices, or general introductions to commerce as a section of life-activity. The solution suggested by experience would seem to be a combination of all these with the last as the basic and synthesizing factor. It is possible that the character of the subject matter in this field would permit of the introduction of specific propaedeutic material as an integral part of the courses in a measure which is not feasible in the case of general language.

We may conclude with these suggestions: (1) Some fields be-

cause of their nature lend themselves to sampling tryout courses better than do others; for example, industrial arts. (2) Some fields are actually explored—sampled, if you please—more fairly and specifically by unified general courses than by actual sampling courses; for example, general science. (3) Some fields by their nature lend themselves to a treatment which may be a synthesis of both methods of exploration; for example, general-business courses. (4) Some fields may allow, or even justify, the development of both kinds of courses, conducted independently of each other; for example, general language and tryout courses in foreign languages. (5) Extremely useful cultural subject matter is often denied junior high school pupils because of the failure to develop exploratory courses of the second type. In the past this has been true in the case of general science, and at the present time it is true in the case of general language.

THE EFFECT OF THE ADVENT OF PUBERTY ON THE GROWTH IN HEIGHT AND WEIGHT OF GIRLS

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In examining the literature dealing with the physical growth of adolescent children, the writer found a variety of statements concerning the accelerated rate of growth which occurs at about the time that the first evidences of puberty appear. That the relation between this spurt in physical growth and the advent of maturity has not been definitely determined can be illustrated by excerpts from the literature on the subject. Hall connects this rapid growth with a time before puberty: "From this point [about two and one-half years of age] on to the prepubescent acceleration, which begins at eleven or twelve in girls and nearly two years later in boys, the percentage of growth in both height and weight is rather constant."¹ King and Hollingworth fix the time at puberty. King states, "The maturing of the sex function is, of course, central in all these physical changes, and the rapid increase in stature is so coincident with the change of puberty that it may ordinarily be taken as a proof that that change has taken place."² Hollingworth says, "Beginning with the first signs of puberty there is in general an acceleration of physical growth."³ In opposition to these statements, Pringle claims that the spurt in growth comes at a time after puberty: "Then comes the sudden rise in the curve indicating the rapid growth of the first year of postpubescence."⁴ Finally, Godin's view seems to be a combination of the prepubescent and postpubescent claims: "The

¹ G. Stanley Hall, *Adolescence*, I, 5. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1904.

² Irving King, *The High-School Age*, p. 13. Indianapolis, Indiana: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1914.

³ H. L. Hollingworth, *Mental Growth and Decline*, p. 232. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1927.

⁴ Ralph W. Pringle, *Adolescence and High-School Problems*, p. 44. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1922.

principal peripuberal increases of height are produced during the three semesters which precede puberty; the principal peripuberal increases of weight take place during the three semesters which follow."¹

In the limited investigation here reported the writer attempted to secure data which would throw additional light on the relation that exists between the advent of puberty and the accelerated rate of growth in height and in weight of children of adolescent age. In order to determine this relation, one should have (1) a sign or indication of the advent of puberty, (2) measurements of height and weight at a time very close to the appearance of this sign, and (3) a series of measurements of height and weight for several consecutive years both preceding and following this sign. In the case of girls, the first menstrual flow serves very readily as an indication of puberty. A series of measurements, then, that show the height and weight of a girl at the time this sign appears, together with the measurements of these two factors for a few years preceding and a few years following this period, would determine the influence the attainment of maturity had on the height and weight of the girl. Such measurements secured in a number of cases would show the general effect of the advent of maturity on the growth of girls as measured by height and weight.

The physical records of the pupils in the Laboratory Schools of the University of Chicago, which contain all this information, were used to secure the data for this investigation. The cases selected were those of girls whose records showed five consecutive yearly measurements of height and weight, the central measurements being those taken nearest the time of the first menstrual flow. The limitations restricted the total number of cases to sixty.

The measurements for these sixty cases were arranged as shown in Tables I and II, and the average increment from year to year for the entire group was determined. The cases were grouped according to the age at which the evidence of puberty first appeared in order to ascertain whether there were any significant differences in the average yearly increment between the girls who matured

¹ Paul Godin, *Growth during School Age*, p. 110. Boston: Richard G. Badger, Publisher, 1920.

TABLE I

HEIGHT IN INCHES OF SIXTY GIRLS TWO YEARS BEFORE THE ADVENT OF MATURITY, ONE YEAR BEFORE MATURITY, AT THE TIME OF MATURITY, ONE YEAR AFTER MATURITY, AND TWO YEARS AFTER MATURITY

GIRL	HEIGHT TWO YEARS BEFORE MATU- RITY	INCRE- MENT	HEIGHT ONE YEAR BEFORE MATU- RITY	INCRE- MENT	HEIGHT AT MA- TURITY	INCRE- MENT	HEIGHT ONE YEAR AFTER MATU- RITY	INCRE- MENT	HEIGHT TWO YEARS AFTER MATU- RITY
Group 1—Twenty Girls Who Matured at the Age of Twelve or Younger									
1.....	51.4	3.9	55.3	3.2	58.5	2.3	60.8	1.2	62.0
2.....	56.4	3.2	59.6	4.0	63.6	1.6	65.2	0.1	65.3
3.....	55.0	3.5	58.5	2.7	61.2	1.1	62.3	0.0	62.3
4.....	54.6	2.7	57.3	3.7	61.0	3.5	64.5	1.3	65.8
5.....	52.4	2.7	55.1	3.6	58.7	1.3	60.0	0.8	60.8
6.....	53.7	3.9	57.6	2.9	60.5	1.4	61.9	0.8	62.7
7.....	59.0	3.5	62.5	2.8	65.3	1.3	66.6	1.1	67.7
8.....	51.8	2.2	54.0	3.7	57.7	2.5	60.2	1.1	61.3
9.....	56.9	2.1	59.0	2.3	61.3	2.4	63.7	1.1	64.8
10.....	57.9	2.9	60.8	3.0	63.8	1.9	65.7	0.6	66.3
11.....	52.9	2.9	55.8	3.0	58.8	1.9	60.7	0.9	61.6
12.....	52.9	2.8	55.7	2.6	58.3	2.1	60.4	0.8	61.2
13.....	55.9	2.3	58.2	3.8	62.0	2.5	64.5	0.7	65.2
14.....	56.7	2.3	59.0	3.6	62.6	3.0	65.6	1.1	66.7
15.....	53.7	2.5	56.2	3.8	60.0	2.8	62.8	1.1	63.9
16.....	55.5	1.8	57.3	3.3	60.6	2.0	62.6	0.0	62.6
17.....	56.0	2.6	58.6	3.9	62.5	2.7	65.2	1.2	66.4
18.....	57.2	2.4	59.6	3.0	62.6	2.5	65.1	0.8	65.9
19.....	55.1	4.4	59.5	2.6	62.1	1.0	63.1	0.6	63.7
20.....	54.9	3.0	57.9	3.6	61.5	2.3	63.8	0.8	64.6
Average.....	55.0	2.9	57.9	3.3	61.1	2.1	63.2	0.8	64.0
Group 2—Nineteen Girls Who Matured at the Age of Thirteen									
21.....	53.2	3.5	56.7	3.8	60.5	0.6	61.1	0.7	61.8
22.....	56.4	3.7	60.1	2.5	62.6	0.8	63.4	0.8	64.2
23.....	53.7	2.9	56.6	3.2	59.8	1.1	60.9	0.0	60.9
24.....	57.4	3.3	60.7	2.8	63.5	1.9	65.4	0.8	66.2
25.....	56.6	1.9	58.5	2.1	60.6	1.9	62.5	0.6	63.1
26.....	55.4	3.1	58.5	1.9	60.4	1.9	62.3	0.8	63.1
27.....	57.5	3.0	60.5	2.3	62.8	2.8	65.6	1.4	67.0
28.....	58.5	3.5	62.0	1.4	63.4	1.0	64.4	0.6	65.0
29.....	54.3	2.8	57.1	2.6	59.7	1.0	61.6	0.7	62.3
30.....	55.0	3.0	58.0	3.3	61.3	1.8	63.1	0.7	63.8
31.....	62.3	1.5	63.8	3.0	66.8	1.0	67.8	0.2	68.0
32.....	54.0	2.0	56.0	3.3	59.3	2.1	61.4	1.2	62.6
33.....	55.3	2.7	58.0	2.6	60.6	2.0	62.6	0.6	63.2
34.....	53.7	2.6	56.3	2.9	59.2	1.3	60.5	0.7	61.2
35.....	57.2	3.4	60.6	3.3	63.9	2.1	66.0	0.6	66.6
36.....	54.4	2.4	56.8	2.6	59.4	0.5	59.9	0.7	60.6
37.....	56.7	2.1	58.8	3.2	62.0	2.3	64.3	1.1	65.4
38.....	58.6	2.6	61.2	2.3	63.5	1.9	65.4	0.8	66.2
39.....	55.3	3.3	58.6	4.4	63.0	0.4	63.4	0.9	64.3
Average.....	56.1	2.8	58.9	2.8	61.7	1.5	63.2	0.7	64.0

TABLE I—Continued

GIRL	HEIGHT TWO YEARS BEFORE MATU- RITY	INCRE- MENT	HEIGHT ONE YEAR BEFORE MATU- RITY	INCRE- MENT	HEIGHT AT MA- TURITY	INCRE- MENT	HEIGHT ONE YEAR AFTER MATU- RITY	INCRE- MENT	HEIGHT TWO YEARS AFTER MATU- RITY
Group 3—Sixteen Girls Who Matured at the Age of Fourteen									
40.....	55.6	1.7	57.3	2.6	59.9	2.7	62.6	1.1	63.7
41.....	57.5	2.6	60.1	3.2	63.3	2.5	65.8	0.8	66.6
42.....	56.0	2.3	58.3	2.2	60.5	2.8	63.3	1.0	64.3
43.....	56.2	2.9	59.1	2.4	61.5	1.0	62.5	0.9	63.4
44.....	55.2	2.4	57.6	2.2	59.8	1.1	60.9	0.9	61.8
45.....	57.2	1.6	58.8	2.9	61.7	1.5	63.2	0.4	63.6
46.....	52.3	2.8	55.1	3.6	58.7	0.9	59.6	0.8	60.4
47.....	51.2	2.5	53.7	4.3	58.0	2.1	60.1	1.1	61.2
48.....	58.8	3.4	62.2	1.3	63.5	2.8	66.3	0.7	67.0
49.....	54.8	0.3	55.1	5.0	60.1	1.8	61.9	1.4	63.3
50.....	57.7	3.4	61.1	2.1	63.2	1.2	64.4	0.4	64.8
51.....	57.7	1.9	59.6	2.4	62.0	0.5	62.5	0.0	62.5
52.....	58.6	2.8	61.4	2.4	63.8	1.1	64.9	1.0	65.9
53.....	52.4	3.4	55.8	2.5	58.3	0.4	58.7	1.3	60.0
54.....	60.3	0.3	60.6	2.4	63.0	1.0	64.0	0.2	64.2
55.....	55.1	2.9	58.0	2.5	60.5	1.4	61.9	1.6	63.5
Average.....	56.0	2.3	58.4	2.8	61.1	1.6	62.7	0.9	63.5
Group 4—Five Girls Who Matured at the Age of Fifteen									
56.....	60.7	0.3	61.0	1.2	62.2	1.5	63.7	0.5	64.2
57.....	58.8	1.7	60.5	2.4	62.9	2.0	64.9	0.6	65.5
58.....	57.9	2.2	60.1	2.9	63.0	0.9	63.9	1.2	65.1
59.....	63.0	1.9	64.9	2.1	67.0	0.4	67.4	0.5	67.9
60.....	58.6	3.0	61.6	2.1	63.7	1.3	65.0	0.4	65.4
Average.....	59.8	1.8	61.6	2.1	63.8	1.2	65.0	0.6	65.6
Average for all cases....	56.0	2.6	58.6	2.9	61.5	1.7	63.2	0.8	64.0

early and those who matured late. Group 1 contains the cases where the first menstrual flow occurred at the age of twelve years or younger; Group 2, at the age of thirteen years; Group 3, at the age of fourteen years; and Group 4, at the age of fifteen years. There were no cases of girls maturing later than at the age of fifteen years.

The data summarized in Table III show the following facts. (1) The greatest increases in height and in weight for all the cases combined occurred in the year just preceding puberty. (2) The second largest increase in height occurred in the second year preceding puberty. (3) The increments in weight for the second year preced-

TABLE II

WEIGHT IN POUNDS OF SIXTY GIRLS TWO YEARS BEFORE THE ADVENT OF MATURITY, ONE YEAR BEFORE MATURITY, AT THE TIME OF MATURITY, ONE YEAR AFTER MATURITY, AND TWO YEARS AFTER MATURITY

GIRL	WEIGHT TWO YEARS BEFORE MATU- RITY	INCRE- MENT	WEIGHT ONE YEAR BEFORE MATU- RITY	INCRE- MENT	WEIGHT AT MA- TURITY	INCRE- MENT	WEIGHT ONE YEAR AFTER MATU- RITY	INCRE- MENT	WEIGHT TWO YEARS AFTER MATU- RITY
Group 1—Twenty Girls Who Matured at the Age of Twelve or Younger									
1.....	65.0	15.5	80.5	10.8	91.3	11.8	103.1	11.4	114.5
2.....	89.3	9.0	98.3	27.5	125.8	4.1	129.9	3.1	133.0
3.....	81.0	17.7	98.7	1.6	100.3	8.9	109.2	5.8	115.0
4.....	63.8	6.8	70.6	17.9	88.5	15.2	103.7	3.3	107.0
5.....	90.0	10.0	100.0	9.7	90.3	8.2	98.5	6.0	104.5
6.....	96.9	5.9	102.8	16.7	119.5	2.3	121.8	1.1	120.7
7.....	97.9	11.0	108.9	25.6	134.5	23.3	157.8	0.8	157.0
8.....	63.8	15.7	79.5	10.3	89.8	25.6	115.4	15.6	131.0
9.....	91.5	16.5	108.0	11.7	119.7	11.8	131.5	21.2	152.7
10.....	85.0	14.0	99.0	23.5	122.5	1.2	121.3	0.2	121.5
11.....	69.9	9.1	79.0	12.0	91.0	11.6	102.6	8.4	111.0
12.....	65.9	1.8	67.7	12.8	80.5	9.9	90.4	8.9	99.3
13.....	80.3	12.7	93.0	11.1	104.1	15.7	119.8	9.7	129.5
14.....	81.6	9.4	91.0	17.7	108.7	20.5	129.2	11.9	141.1
15.....	70.4	11.7	82.1	21.1	103.2	12.1	115.3	4.7	110.6
16.....	103.4	3.4	100.0	20.4	120.4	18.6	139.0	6.5	145.5
17.....	79.3	12.2	91.5	16.7	108.2	11.5	119.7	9.6	129.3
18.....	68.6	2.7	71.3	12.1	83.4	15.5	98.9	9.1	108.0
19.....	70.4	21.3	91.7	13.2	104.9	4.1	109.0	6.5	115.5
20.....	68.4	13.0	81.4	10.6	92.0	15.5	107.5	15.2	122.7
Average.	79.1	10.6	89.8	14.2	103.9	12.3	116.2	7.3	123.5
Group 2—Nineteen Girls Who Matured at the Age of Thirteen									
21.....	63.3	13.6	76.9	24.3	101.2	7.8	109.0	5.8	114.8
22.....	77.7	11.3	89.0	12.0	101.0	11.6	112.6	2.8	115.4
23.....	82.3	11.4	93.7	6.6	100.3	11.5	111.8	12.7	124.5
24.....	82.5	14.2	96.7	11.3	108.0	6.1	114.1	6.7	120.8
25.....	76.2	10.6	86.8	9.2	96.0	9.8	105.8	2.3	108.1
26.....	69.4	13.1	82.5	9.3	91.8	11.7	103.5	9.4	112.9
27.....	89.4	10.9	100.3	10.7	111.0	9.6	120.6	12.4	133.0
28.....	93.6	11.6	105.2	10.8	116.0	6.4	122.4	0.8	123.2
29.....	78.3	12.1	90.4	17.6	108.0	17.5	125.5	13.1	138.6
30.....	70.4	10.8	81.2	23.8	105.0	7.1	112.1	6.9	119.0
31.....	92.0	10.6	102.6	17.4	120.0	6.4	126.4	2.2	128.6
32.....	69.0	9.0	78.0	12.4	90.4	9.6	100.0	7.2	107.2
33.....	80.3	8.9	89.2	18.9	108.1	10.9	119.0	2.4	121.4
34.....	71.9	5.7	77.6	16.1	93.7	5.3	99.0	12.7	111.7
35.....	78.0	12.0	90.0	12.8	102.8	14.2	117.0	6.2	123.2
36.....	81.8	13.5	95.3	13.2	108.5	9.5	118.0	5.5	123.5
37.....	78.5	10.7	89.2	16.1	105.3	11.3	116.6	9.7	126.3
38.....	78.5	2.8	81.3	12.7	94.0	9.7	103.7	4.0	107.7
39.....	88.9	0.7	88.2	31.3	119.5	2.6	122.1	0.9	123.0
Average.	79.1	10.1	89.2	15.1	104.2	9.4	113.6	6.5	120.2

TABLE II—Continued

GIRL	WEIGHT TWO YEARS BEFORE MATU- RITY	INCRE- MENT	WEIGHT ONE YEAR BEFORE MATU- RITY	INCRE- MENT	WEIGHT AT MA- TURITY	INCRE- MENT	WEIGHT ONE YEAR AFTER MATU- RITY	INCRE- MENT	WEIGHT TWO YEARS AFTER MATU- RITY
Group 3—Sixteen Girls Who Matured at the Age of Fourteen									
40.....	71.4	8.5	79.9	18.6	98.5	15.7	114.2	3.3	117.5
41.....	73.2	12.5	85.7	13.6	99.3	12.2	111.5	6.6	118.1
42.....	87.0	6.8	93.8	12.6	106.4	13.0	119.4	3.8	115.6
43.....	75.8	14.6	90.4	7.6	98.0	9.8	107.8	4.0	111.8
44.....	68.4	11.5	79.9	21.3	101.2	0.3	101.5	8.6	110.1
45.....	76.0	7.5	83.5	17.2	100.7	2.8	103.5	5.0	108.5
46.....	59.6	21.8	81.4	17.6	99.0	1.0	100.0	15.3	115.3
47.....	60.7	6.3	67.0	11.3	78.3	7.9	86.2	1.3	87.5
48.....	97.7	12.3	110.0	11.5	121.5	14.9	136.4	1.1	137.5
49.....	71.0	10.6	81.6	15.2	96.8	7.7	104.5	12.5	117.0
50.....	81.1	15.8	96.9	7.7	104.6	5.7	110.3	12.5	122.8
51.....	83.0	10.3	93.3	7.2	100.5	8.7	109.2	2.8	106.4
52.....	96.0	8.9	104.9	12.5	117.4	12.0	129.4	7.9	137.3
53.....	59.6	10.2	69.8	11.2	81.0	8.0	89.0	6.2	95.2
54.....	89.0	3.0	92.0	15.9	107.9	4.2	112.1	4.6	116.7
55.....	66.8	7.1	73.9	8.1	82.0	6.6	88.6	3.6	92.2
Average.	76.0	10.5	86.5	13.1	99.6	8.2	107.7	5.4	113.1
Group 4—Five Girls Who Matured at the Age of Fifteen									
56.....	83.5	1.9	85.4	8.6	94.0	7.5	101.5	2.8	104.3
57.....	84.4	6.6	91.0	10.5	101.5	10.8	112.3	6.5	118.8
58.....	80.5	7.5	88.0	17.0	105.0	11.5	116.5	9.2	125.7
59.....	86.3	7.1	93.4	15.6	109.0	9.0	118.0	0.4	118.4
60.....	74.7	7.9	82.6	12.7	95.3	11.6	106.9	6.6	113.5
Average.	81.9	6.2	88.1	12.9	101.0	10.1	111.0	5.1	116.1
Average for all cases	78.5	10.1	88.6	14.0	102.6	10.1	112.7	6.3	119.0

ing puberty and for the first year following puberty were the same. (4) The first year following puberty showed the third largest increase in height. (5) The smallest gains in both height and weight came in the second year following the advent of maturity.

With regard to the groups, the following facts are shown. The increases in height in each group except Group 2 arranged themselves in the same order as did the increases of the entire group; that is, the first year preceding puberty showed the greatest increase; the second year preceding, the next greatest; the first year following,

the third greatest; and the second year following, the smallest. In Group 2 the increases for the first year preceding maturity and the second year preceding are identical. The gains in height for the girls who matured at fifteen years of age were noticeably smaller than those for the other groups.

In weight, every group did not follow the trend of the entire group. However, each group showed the largest amount of increase in the first year preceding puberty, but Group 1 (girls who matured

TABLE III

SUMMARY OF THE AVERAGE YEARLY INCREMENTS IN HEIGHT AND WEIGHT BY GROUPS

GROUP	AGE AT MATURITY	NUMBER OF CASES	AVERAGE YEARLY INCREMENT IN HEIGHT IN INCHES				AVERAGE YEARLY INCREMENT IN WEIGHT IN POUNDS			
			Two Years before Maturity	One Year before Maturity	One Year after Maturity	Two Years after Maturity	Two Years before Maturity	One Year before Maturity	One Year after Maturity	Two Years after Maturity
1.	12 or younger	20	2.9	3.3	2.1	0.8	10.6	14.2	12.3	7.3
2.	13	19	2.8	2.8	1.5	0.7	10.1	15.1	9.4	6.5
3.	14	16	2.3	2.8	1.6	0.9	10.5	13.1	8.2	5.4
4.	15	5	1.8	2.1	1.2	0.6	6.2	12.9	10.1	5.1
All cases	60	2.6	2.9	1.7	0.8	10.1	14.0	10.1	6.3

at the age of twelve years or younger) and Group 4 (girls who matured at the age of fifteen years) showed the second largest increase in the first year following puberty rather than in the second year preceding. In every group, the second year following puberty showed the smallest increase. This investigation, then, shows that the sudden rise in height and weight curves of girls comes one or two years before puberty rather than exactly at the time of puberty or after this development.

An effort was made to determine the influence of early or late maturing on height and weight. Baldwin says, "Tall girls of a fairly homogeneous group, as a general rule, mature earlier than short ones."¹ If this statement were true, one would expect to find that the tall girls in this investigation matured at an earlier age than did

¹ Bird T. Baldwin, *The Physical Growth of Children from Birth to Maturity*, p. 194. University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare, Volume I, Number 1. Iowa City, Iowa: University of Iowa, 1921.

the short girls. The cases were arranged in rank order according to height two years before puberty. The lowest and highest fourths, or the fifteen shortest and the fifteen tallest girls, were selected,

TABLE IV

LOWEST AND HIGHEST FOURTHS OF THE CASES RANKED IN THE ORDER OF HEIGHT TWO YEARS BEFORE THE ADVENT OF MATURITY

GIRL	AGE AT MATURITY	HEIGHT TWO YEARS BEFORE MATURITY	INCREMENT	HEIGHT ONE YEAR BEFORE MATURITY	INCREMENT	HEIGHT AT MATURITY	INCREMENT	HEIGHT ONE YEAR AFTER MATURITY	INCREMENT	HEIGHT TWO YEARS AFTER MATURITY
Lowest Fourth										
47.....	14	51.2	2.5	53.7	4.3	58.0	2.1	60.1	1.1	61.2
1.....	10	51.4	3.9	55.3	3.2	58.5	2.3	60.8	1.2	62.0
8.....	12	51.8	2.2	54.0	3.7	57.7	2.5	60.2	1.1	61.3
46.....	14	52.3	2.8	55.1	3.6	58.7	0.9	59.6	0.8	60.4
5.....	11	52.4	2.7	55.1	3.6	58.7	1.3	60.0	0.8	60.8
53.....	14	52.4	3.4	55.8	2.5	58.3	0.4	58.7	1.3	60.0
11.....	12	52.9	2.9	55.8	3.0	58.8	1.9	60.7	0.9	61.6
12.....	12	52.9	2.8	55.7	2.6	58.3	2.1	60.4	0.8	61.2
21.....	13	53.2	3.5	56.7	3.8	60.5	0.6	61.1	0.7	61.8
23.....	13	53.7	2.9	56.6	3.2	59.8	1.1	60.9	0.0	60.9
6.....	12	53.7	3.9	57.6	2.9	60.5	1.4	61.9	0.8	62.7
15.....	12	53.7	2.5	56.2	3.8	60.0	2.8	62.8	1.1	63.9
34.....	13	53.7	2.6	56.3	2.9	59.2	1.3	60.5	0.7	61.2
32.....	13	54.0	2.0	56.0	3.3	59.3	2.1	61.4	1.2	62.6
29.....	13	54.3	2.8	57.1	2.6	59.7	1.9	61.6	0.7	62.3
Average	12.5	52.9	2.9	55.8	3.3	59.1	1.6	60.7	0.9	61.6
Highest Fourth										
51.....	14	57.7	1.9	59.6	2.4	62.0	0.5	62.5	0.0	62.5
50.....	14	57.7	3.4	61.1	2.1	63.2	1.2	64.4	0.4	64.8
10.....	12	57.9	2.9	60.8	3.0	63.8	1.9	65.7	0.6	66.3
58.....	15	57.9	2.2	60.1	2.9	63.0	0.9	63.9	1.2	65.1
28.....	13	58.5	3.5	62.0	1.4	63.4	1.0	64.4	0.6	65.0
52.....	14	58.6	2.8	61.4	2.4	63.8	1.1	64.9	1.0	65.9
38.....	13	58.6	2.6	61.2	2.3	63.5	1.9	65.4	0.8	66.2
60.....	15	58.6	3.0	61.6	2.1	63.7	1.3	65.0	0.4	65.4
57.....	15	58.8	1.7	60.5	2.4	62.9	2.0	64.9	0.6	65.5
48.....	14	58.8	3.4	62.2	1.3	63.5	2.8	66.3	0.7	67.0
7.....	12	59.0	3.5	62.5	2.8	65.3	1.3	66.6	1.1	67.7
54.....	14	60.3	0.3	60.6	2.4	63.0	1.0	64.0	0.2	64.2
56.....	15	60.7	0.3	61.0	1.2	62.2	1.5	63.7	0.5	64.2
31.....	13	62.3	1.5	63.8	3.0	66.8	1.0	67.8	0.2	68.0
59.....	15	63.0	1.9	64.9	2.1	67.0	0.4	67.4	0.5	67.9
Average	13.9	59.2	2.3	61.6	2.3	63.8	1.3	65.1	0.6	65.7

and the average age at which maturity first appeared was determined. Table IV shows that for the fifteen shortest girls the average age was twelve years and six months, while for the fifteen tallest girls the average age was thirteen years and eleven months. Furthermore, all the girls in Group 4 (girls who matured at the age of fifteen years) were in the group of the fifteen tallest girls.

Another interesting claim is that of Terman, who says, "Another law of growth somewhat related to the above, and of the greatest importance for hygiene, is that in case of delayed puberty adolescent acceleration is brief in extent and leaves the individual below the ultimate size of those who reach puberty earlier."¹ In order to test this claim, the cases were arranged in rank order according to weight two years before puberty. Table V presents the data for the cases in the lowest and highest fourths—the fifteen girls who were lightest in weight and the fifteen girls who were heaviest. One would expect from Terman's statement to find that the girls in Group 4 (girls who matured at the age of fifteen years) had a shorter period of accelerated growth than did the others and that they would be lighter in weight and smaller in stature after maturity. The figures in Table III show that the girls in this group did not show as great a yearly increase in height and weight two years preceding the advent of maturity as did the girls in the other groups. The period of accelerated growth was thus shorter for the girls who matured late. Tables VI and VII show the average heights and weights of these girls in comparison with those of the other groups, the measurements being those taken at the time of the advent of maturity, one year after, and two years after. It will be seen that the girls who matured late were a little taller and a little lighter in weight than the girls in the other groups. These data, therefore, seem to be in harmony with Terman's claim with regard to the short duration of the accelerated-growth period and with regard to the weight of girls who mature late, but they do not support his conclusion with regard to the height of girls. The number of girls in Group 4 was too small, however, to make possible a conclusive statement.

¹ Lewis M. Terman, *The Hygiene of the School Child*, p. 29. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1914.

In conclusion, this study presents evidence showing that the acceleration in the growth of girls, as measured by height and weight, starts from one to two years before the advent of maturity, as de-

TABLE V

LOWEST AND HIGHEST FOURTHS OF THE CASES RANKED IN THE ORDER OF WEIGHT TWO YEARS BEFORE THE ADVENT OF MATURITY

GIRL	AGE AT MATURITY	WEIGHT TWO YEARS BEFORE MATURITY	INCREMENT	WEIGHT ONE YEAR BEFORE MATURITY	INCREMENT	WEIGHT AT MATURITY	INCREMENT	WEIGHT ONE YEAR AFTER MATURITY	INCREMENT	WEIGHT TWO YEARS AFTER MATURITY
Lowest Fourth										
46.....	14	59.6	21.8	81.4	17.6	99.0	1.0	100.0	15.3	115.3
53.....	14	59.6	10.2	69.8	11.2	81.0	8.0	89.0	6.2	95.2
47.....	14	60.7	6.3	67.0	11.3	78.3	7.9	86.2	1.3	87.5
21.....	13	63.3	13.6	76.9	24.3	101.2	7.8	109.0	5.8	114.8
4.....	11	63.8	6.8	70.6	17.9	88.5	15.2	103.7	3.3	107.0
8.....	12	63.8	15.7	79.5	10.3	89.8	25.6	115.4	15.6	131.0
1.....	10	65.0	15.5	80.5	10.8	91.3	11.8	103.1	11.4	114.5
12.....	12	65.9	1.8	67.7	12.8	80.5	9.9	90.4	8.9	99.3
55.....	14	66.8	7.1	73.9	8.1	82.0	6.6	88.6	3.6	92.2
44.....	14	68.4	11.5	79.9	21.3	101.2	0.3	101.5	8.6	110.1
20.....	12	68.4	13.0	81.4	10.6	92.0	15.5	107.5	15.2	122.7
18.....	12	68.6	2.7	71.3	12.1	83.4	15.5	98.9	9.1	108.0
32.....	13	69.0	9.0	78.0	12.4	90.4	9.6	100.0	7.2	107.2
26.....	13	69.4	13.1	82.5	9.3	91.8	11.7	103.5	9.4	112.9
11.....	12	69.9	9.1	79.0	12.0	91.0	11.6	102.6	8.4	111.0
Average	12.7	65.5	10.5	76.0	13.5	89.4	10.5	100.0	8.6	108.6
Highest Fourth										
59.....	15	86.3	7.1	93.4	15.6	109.0	9.0	118.0	0.4	118.4
42.....	14	87.0	6.8	93.8	12.6	106.4	13.0	119.4	3.8	115.6
39.....	13	88.9	0.7	88.2	31.3	119.5	2.6	122.1	0.9	123.0
54.....	14	89.0	3.0	92.0	15.9	107.9	4.2	112.1	4.6	116.7
2.....	11	89.3	9.0	98.3	27.5	125.8	4.1	129.9	3.1	133.0
27.....	13	89.4	10.9	100.3	10.7	111.0	9.6	120.6	12.4	133.0
5.....	11	90.0	10.0	100.0	9.7	90.3	8.2	98.5	6.0	104.5
9.....	12	91.5	16.5	108.0	11.7	119.7	11.8	131.5	21.2	152.7
31.....	13	92.0	10.6	102.6	17.4	120.0	6.4	126.4	2.2	128.6
28.....	13	93.6	11.6	105.2	10.8	116.0	6.4	122.4	0.8	123.2
52.....	14	96.0	8.9	104.9	12.5	117.4	12.0	129.4	7.9	137.3
6.....	12	96.9	5.9	102.8	16.7	119.5	2.3	121.8	1.1	120.7
48.....	14	97.7	12.3	110.0	11.5	121.5	14.9	136.4	1.1	137.5
7.....	12	97.9	11.0	108.9	25.6	134.5	23.3	157.8	0.8	157.0
16.....	12	103.4	3.4	100.0	20.4	120.4	18.6	139.0	6.5	145.5
Average	12.9	92.6	8.0	100.6	15.4	115.9	9.8	125.7	4.1	129.8

terminated by the first menstrual flow, rather than at the time of, or following, the first appearance of this indication of puberty. This conclusion holds true regardless of whether this sign appears in girls as young as twelve years or as old as fifteen years. While in this

TABLE VI
AVERAGE HEIGHT IN INCHES OF GIRLS AT THE ADVENT
OF MATURITY, ONE YEAR AFTER MATURITY, AND
TWO YEARS AFTER MATURITY

	Height at Advent of Maturity	Height One Year after Maturity	Height Two Years after Maturity
Group 4.....	63.8	65.0	65.6
Groups 1, 2, and 3.....	61.3	63.1	63.9

TABLE VII
AVERAGE WEIGHT IN POUNDS OF GIRLS AT THE ADVENT
OF MATURITY, ONE YEAR AFTER MATURITY, AND
TWO YEARS AFTER MATURITY

	Weight at Advent of Maturity	Weight One Year after Maturity	Weight Two Years after Maturity
Group 4.....	101.0	111.0	116.1
Groups 1, 2, and 3.....	102.8	112.8	119.3

study there were available only five cases of girls who matured late, there is probably little ground for the belief that tall girls mature earlier than do short ones. However, further study is necessary on this point—study of a larger number of girls who matured earlier and later than the usual age of thirteen to fourteen years.

SCHOLARSHIP AND SUCCESS IN LIFE

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A question of great importance to parents and educators is the relation between school marks and success in life. Do high marks indicate better chances of success, or do they represent merely the opinion of instructors in artificial situations unrelated to life? During the school year 1928-29 a definite investigation was made in an effort to answer this question.

TABLE I
POPULATION OF A TOWN IN CENTRAL NEBRASKA
BY DECADES FROM 1880 TO 1920

Year	Population
1880.....	768
1890.....	1,076
1900.....	849
1910.....	1,102
1920.....	991

In central Nebraska there is a town which is typical of small western towns. The data from the United States census records presented in Table I show that it has had spasmodic periods of increase and decrease in population. The pupils considered in the investigation are the children of business and professional men living in the town and of farmers living on farms close to the town. The town has no large factories, no dominating business influences, and only an average floating population. The high school in this town has complete school records for forty-one graduating classes, 1888-1928,¹ inclusive. The graduates of the first thirty-five of these classes are included in this study. It was thought best not to include the 191 graduates of the six classes from 1923-28 because not enough time has elapsed for them to show their worth.

¹At the time the study was made, the records for the class of 1929 were not complete.

The thirty-five classes include 387 graduates. Of these 387 graduates, 84, or 22 per cent, received low scholarship marks; 205, or 53 per cent, received average marks; and 98, or 25 per cent, received high marks. The question for which an answer is sought, then, is: Have the 84 pupils who received low marks succeeded in life as well as their classmates with higher marks?

MALE GRADUATES

The factors of success considered include present location, type of community of residence, occupation, and accumulation of wealth. Male and female graduates are grouped and studied separately.

TABLE II
DISTRIBUTION OF 146 MALE GRADUATES ACCORDING TO SCHOLARSHIP MARKS AND PRESENT LOCATION

PRESENT LOCATION	MEN WITH SCHOLARSHIP MARKS OF 70-79		MEN WITH SCHOLARSHIP MARKS OF 80-89		MEN WITH SCHOLARSHIP MARKS OF 90-100	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Home town.....	15	31	12	17	1	3
Other towns in Nebraska..	16	33	31	45	9	31
Other states.....	17	35	26	38	18	62
Unknown.....	0	0	0	0	1	3
Total.....	48	99	69	100	29	99

Table II shows the relation of present location to the scholarship marks of the male graduates. This table shows that but 3 per cent of the high-scholarship group and 17 per cent of the average-scholarship group have remained at home, while 31 per cent of the low-scholarship group have stayed in the home town. Of the 97 per cent with the highest marks who have left the town, about one-third still reside in Nebraska and two-thirds have moved from the state. These facts seem to indicate that high mental ability inspires men to travel and seek new experiences.

Table III shows that the trend toward the city is strong in the case of all groups, although it is strongest in the high-scholarship group and weakest in the low-scholarship group. Fifty per cent of the low group have remained in villages or in the open country as compared with 24 per cent of the high group. In New England it is

admitted that the bright boys and girls go to the cities and that those who are left to man the farms are largely those of less ability. In the West we have prided ourselves on avoiding this trend, but the facts shown in Table III indicate that the trend in the West is much the same as that on the rocky farms of the Northeast.

TABLE III
DISTRIBUTION OF 146 MALE GRADUATES ACCORDING TO SCHOLARSHIP
MARKS AND TYPE OF COMMUNITY OF RESIDENCE

COMMUNITY OF RESIDENCE	MEN WITH SCHOLARSHIP MARKS OF 70-79		MEN WITH SCHOLARSHIP MARKS OF 80-89		MEN WITH SCHOLARSHIP MARKS OF 90-100	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Rural district.....	17	35	10	14	2	7
Village.....	7	15	15	22	5	17
City.....	23	48	42	61	21	72
Unknown.....	1	2	2	3	1	3
Total.....	48	100	69	100	29	99

TABLE IV
DISTRIBUTION OF 146 MALE GRADUATES ACCORDING TO SCHOLARSHIP
MARKS AND PRESENT OCCUPATION

PRESENT OCCUPATION	MEN WITH SCHOLARSHIP MARKS OF 70-79		MEN WITH SCHOLARSHIP MARKS OF 80-89		MEN WITH SCHOLARSHIP MARKS OF 90-100	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Business.....	18	38	27	39	10	34
Profession.....	10	21	12	17	13	45
Farmer.....	18	38	9	13	2	7
Clerk.....	2	4	5	7	1	3
Craftsman.....	0	0	11	16	0	0
Student.....	0	0	4	6	1	3
Unknown.....	0	0	1	1	2	7
Total.....	48	101	69	99	29	99

Table IV shows that the three groups contribute approximately the same percentage of men to business. Two significant facts are shown in this table. (1) Forty-five per cent of the high-scholarship graduates are engaged in the professions as compared with 17 per cent of the average group and 21 per cent of the low group. (2)

Farming claims more than one-third of the graduates with low marks as compared with 13 per cent of those with average marks and only 7 per cent of those with high marks.

When the question of wealth is considered, the high-scholarship graduates have a decided advantage. Sixty-five per cent of the low-scholarship men have accumulated less than \$5,000 as compared with 55 per cent of the average group and 24 per cent of the high group. Only 27 per cent of the low-scholarship group have accumulated between \$5,000 and \$25,000 as compared with 45 per cent of the average group and 66 per cent of the high group. So far as the male high-school graduates of this central Nebraska town are concerned, their chances of becoming wealthy correlate closely with the quality of their marks in high school.

FEMALE GRADUATES

The figures for the women show somewhat similar conditions. There are records for 241 women who graduated during the thirty-five-year period. The facts with regard to the present location of the female graduates show the same general trend as that found in the case of the male graduates, though to a less degree. The percentage of low-scholarship women who have remained in the local district is twice as great as the corresponding percentage of high-scholarship women. A larger percentage of high-scholarship women have left the state. Naturally, most of the female graduates are occupied as housewives. Of those not so occupied, the percentage with high-scholarship marks engaged in professional work is twice as great as the corresponding percentage of either of the other two groups.

Table V shows that the relation between scholarship marks and wealth is about the same for female graduates as for male graduates; that is, the higher the scholarship marks, the better are the chances of accumulating more than \$5,000. Table V shows five graduates with an accumulation of more than \$25,000. Of the five, only one is in the high-scholarship group. This fact seems to be a contradiction of the general trend for both the men and the women. However, further study of the five cases shows that the only woman who is directly responsible for the accumulation of her wealth is the one

who received high marks. The other four are the beneficiaries of the efforts of others.

The conclusion is that, while unknown influences admittedly play a part in determining the life of both men and women, there is a

TABLE V
DISTRIBUTION OF 241 FEMALE GRADUATES ACCORDING
TO SCHOLARSHIP MARKS AND WEALTH

AMOUNT OF WEALTH	WOMEN WITH SCHOLARSHIP MARKS OF 70-79		WOMEN WITH SCHOLARSHIP MARKS OF 80-89		WOMEN WITH SCHOLARSHIP MARKS OF 90-100	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Less than \$5,000.....	21	58	70	51	21	30
\$5,000-\$25,000.....	10	28	55	40	40	58
More than \$25,000.....	2	6	2	1	1	1
Unknown.....	3	8	9	7	7	10
Total.....	36	100	136	99	69	99

definite relation between marks in high school and success in life. This is not necessarily a causal relation. It may be that the elements of character that make for success in later life are active during high-school days. While there are many exceptions to the rule, the trend is pronounced, and the chances for success in life are largely in direct proportion to the quality of high-school marks.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

Pictorial history.—About two years ago the reviewer had occasion to review the first seven volumes of the Pageant of America. The fifteen volumes have been recently completed by the publication of Volumes II, XIV, and XV.¹ Everything commendatory that was said of the first seven volumes (*School Review*, XXXVI, 309-10) applies equally well to the more recent volumes.

The Lure of the Frontier: A Story of Race Conflict by Ralph Henry Gabriel (Volume II) is a scholarly treatment of one of our most difficult national problems. The author is fully appreciative of the native races of America, for he writes, "These redskins who yielded sullenly to the white man were in many respects a gifted people" (p. 1). His understanding of the attitudes of the European colonists toward these people is indicated by the following sentences: "The Spanish grandee turned the conquered native into a drudge and a serf; the *courier de bois* looked upon the forest hunter as a partner" (p. 2). "Rare indeed was the Englishman who, beholding in the primitive son of the forest his brother, considered himself his brother's keeper" (p. 3). Some three hundred pages of documents, maps, portraits, and quotations from dependable secondary sources bring the story down to the present administration. One of the latest important acts of this administration is described in these words:

In 1929 President Hoover appointed the president of the Indian Rights Association as chief of the Bureau of Indian Affairs. The event closed an era. A cloud which had hung almost continuously over succeeding administrations since the abandonment of the policy of war and to which the scientist, O. C. Marsh, had called attention in his report on the scandals of the Red Cloud agency, was dispelled. A new day of scientific aid in their efforts to adjust themselves to American life dawned for the wards of the nation (p. 300).

The American Stage by Oral Sumner Coad and Edwin Mims, Jr., is Volume XIV in the series. Following an eight-page general introduction by Ralph H. Gabriel are thirteen chapters tracing the development of the theater in this

¹ The Pageant of America: Volume II: *The Lure of the Frontier: A Story of Race Conflict* by Ralph Henry Gabriel (pp. 328). Volume XIV: *The American Stage* by Oral Sumner Coad and Edwin Mims, Jr. (pp. 362). Volume XV: *Annals of American Sport* by John Allen Krout (pp. 360). New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1929.

country from Colonial days to the present time. The treatment is comprehensive, is well illustrated by carefully selected pictures and facsimiles of programs and announcements, and deals adequately for the general reader with all the outstanding performers on the legitimate stage. One looks in vain, however, for any consideration of the "movie" or the beginnings of the "talkie." In his general introduction, however, Ralph H. Gabriel, the editor, says: "Undoubtedly the cinema mirrors the taste of the mass of the American people. Much good as well as evil flickers on the screen and the beautiful jostles the cheap. In one generation the motion picture has become a social force whose power no man can estimate" (p. 6). Perhaps it is too early to write on this aspect of the theater.

Volume XV by John Allen Krout is entitled *Annals of American Sport*. It is dedicated "to Walter Camp, whose faith and vision find fulfillment in these annals of American sport." There are in all twelve chapters, covering horse racing, yachting, fishing, baseball, football, golf, and other games. All are well illustrated, and adequate brief comments are included on the leaders and history-makers in the respective fields. It is to be hoped that this volume will furnish inspiration for other writers in giving consideration to the need of the average American for relaxation and outdoor life as well as to the problems involved in athletics in educational institutions. This last volume in the series contains a carefully selected general bibliography for the series of fifteen volumes.

In summary, these last volumes justify what the reviewer said about the first seven, namely, that the series belongs in the library of every college, every high school, and every junior high school and in the home of the general reader who can afford fine books for his family.

WILLIAM JOHN COOPER

WASHINGTON, D.C.

Laboratory equipment for the teaching of the social studies.—During late years few developments in the teaching of the social studies have been more striking than the multiplication of teaching aids of varied types. Ten years ago, for example, the equipment for instruction in civics in the upper-elementary and high-school grades was limited in the vast majority of schools to the textbook, supplemented occasionally by a few reference works and government documents. Indeed, as late as 1926, so far as the reviewer is aware, there was available in the field of civics not a single laboratory manual, standardized test, set of charts, or volume of readings. At the present time, however, all the foregoing equipment is obtainable, most of it being in such variety as to give the teacher a wide opportunity for choice. Similar developments, although not of such recent origin or of such rapid growth, have taken place in the field of history and the other social studies. In teaching the foregoing subjects, many schools have introduced during the same period procedures that partake in varying degrees of the nature of laboratory technique.

The progress that has thus been made in laboratory equipment and pro-

cedure was doubtless one of the factors that led to the choice of the subject as an attractive field for research by a recent investigator, the results of whose inquiries are now available.¹ More important than the foregoing motive, however, was a realization by the investigator of the need in the social studies for standards with regard to equipment and teaching aids that would be of service to both administrators and teachers. As the main objective of the study the investigator proposed "to determine as nearly as possible . . . what constitutes the minimum laboratory equipment necessary to make possible effective teaching in the social studies in Grades 4 to 12" (p. 1). The method adopted to achieve the foregoing objective was as follows: (1) The literature on the history and the philosophy of education and educational psychology and the publications of bureaus of educational research and of educational organizations were surveyed and reviewed. (2) One hundred and thirty-two courses of study and thirty books on methods of teaching, each dealing with certain aspects of the social studies, were analyzed. (3) Visits were made to thirty-two schools, and conferences were held with twelve librarians, twenty principals and superintendents, and fifty teachers and supervisors of the social studies in the schools visited. (4) Usable questionnaires were filled out by 388 teachers residing in forty-two states and the District of Columbia. Conclusions were reached by utilizing "only such data . . . as are considered representative of the best practice and the collective opinion of those who are most keenly alert to the demands made by [the social studies]. Each source of data was sanctioned by several experts in the field. A committee of experts also was asked to decide upon the comparative weightings which should be given the data from the various sources" (p. 8).

In the investigation equipment was viewed as falling into the following categories: (1) furniture and fixtures; (2) books and periodicals; (3) maps, charts, and atlases; (4) pictures and other visual aids; (5) apparatus and supplies; (6) economic and industrial exhibits; and (7) miscellaneous items. The conclusions drawn for the junior high school may be taken as examples of the outcome of the inquiry, although, of course, the conclusions drawn for the junior high school differ in numerous respects from those drawn for the intermediate grades and for the senior high school. The conclusions for the junior high school are as follows: (1) The requirements in equipment for the social studies in the junior high school are so nearly identical for the different subjects as to suggest that a great saving in the cost of equipment can be made by merging these subjects in one department and grouping the classrooms in one part of the building. (2) Social-studies classrooms in the junior high school should have for a given number of pupils 20 per cent more floor space than is required for classrooms for subjects that do not demand the use of tables and chairs. (3) The majority of even the most progressive schools are poorly equipped for the teaching of the

¹ J. W. Baldwin, *The Social Studies Laboratory: A Study of Equipment and Teaching Aids for the Social Studies*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 371. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Pp. vi+98. \$1.50.

social studies. (4) Much of the money spent for equipment for the social studies in the junior high school is invested unwisely. (5) One-half of the teachers of the social studies in the junior high school make very little use of the community as a laboratory. (6) One-half of the teachers of the social studies in the junior high school do not make much use of materials that may be had without cost. (7) At least one room in the social-studies department in the junior high school should be equipped so as to provide for construction, first-hand investigation, and problem-solving activities. (8) The social-studies workroom or laboratory should be at least one and one-half times as large as the regular classroom. (9) Adjoining the laboratory there should be a storage room for materials which are temporarily not in use.

The study will easily take first rank in its field. It will prove an invaluable aid to administrators and teachers who are responsible for securing equipment that will help to improve the quality of instruction given in the social studies. It provides suitable material with which to awaken that large number of administrators who seem to be unaware of the need for adequate laboratory equipment in the field of citizenship training to the vital importance of properly equipping the schools under their control. In such ways it will be of invaluable service. The usefulness of the study, however, would have been greatly enhanced had the investigator included lists of the books that have proved valuable as supplementary material in the various social studies. The inclusion of lists of serviceable laboratory manuals, of standardized tests in the social studies, and of available sets of maps and charts would have added notably to the practical value of the investigation.

HOWARD C. HILL

Introduction to a unified course in the social studies.—Among the aims of the various social studies, perhaps none is more important than that of cultivating in children the knowledge which will enable them to understand the problems of today and tomorrow, the attitude of maintaining an open mind in the case of unsolved problems, and the habit of finding solutions of the problems in accordance with the facts involved. That this aim has been too little achieved must be granted. The spectacle of educated Americans influenced by war-time and peace-time propaganda without attempting to distinguish between that founded on all the facts and that based on a few facts or fancies is too common to be amusing. It has led many of those working in the field to conclude that too few of the courses in history, geography, civics, and economics are functioning. While pupils have found course after course interesting in themselves, they have not seen the relation between the courses and the problems of today. Too seldom have they become accustomed to suspending judgment until the facts are known. Too rarely have they acquired the habit of assembling facts to explain problems that arise beyond the confines of a school textbook.

Here and there, where teachers have attempted to reorganize their courses on a more effective basis, they have realized the tremendous task that lies ahead.

The assembling of materials within the reading range of the children involved and within the purchasing powers of even a school library which has more than average resources has been a discouraging task. The need of a new type of textbook, which will include within its covers the best of the scattered reference readings, the almost inaccessible statistics, and the rich illustrative materials, all at the level of the pupil into whose hands it will be placed, has become very apparent.

To those who have felt this need, Professor Rugg's *An Introduction to American Civilization*¹ is particularly to be recommended. It is the first textbook of a series presenting a unified course in the social studies. It deals with the economic life of the United States and calls itself, very properly, "A Textbook of Geography and Civics with Historical Backgrounds."

Though the *Introduction* was only recently released for general use, more than three hundred school systems throughout the country are familiar with its scope and the scope of the books which will follow it, for it has already passed through one mimeographed and two printed experimental editions. It is published in its present form after nine years of investigation and seven years of experimentation. On the basis of this research, the subject matter it contains has been reworked and re-worded until it falls well within the range of difficulty of children who are normal readers and who have an average background for the grade for which it is intended.

In the process of weeding out unsuitable materials, there has been no tendency to reduce the whole to an array of facts and generalizations which have lost their vitality. The *Introduction* is far richer than its name implies. Including six hundred pages and intended as a textbook for the first semester of the seventh grade, it discusses fundamental ideas very fully. Generalizations are stated simply in child-like language at the beginning of each unit of work so that there shall be no doubt as to that on which the child should concentrate attention. Within the chapters themselves, the stories run along smoothly. They are made vivid by dramatic incidents, original with the author or carefully adapted from other writers. Short tables of statistics, graphs, diagrams, and maps are inserted at points where they are needed to reinforce the text, while well-chosen photographs, drawings, or cartoons are of frequent occurrence. References to interesting supplementary readings have been compiled, often annotated briefly. The Appendix contains statistical materials not ordinarily available to children in a classroom.

Rich as the *Introduction* is, it is not complete in itself. It is a widely recognized fact that mere reading about problems does not always give a thorough understanding of them, much less give adequate training in thinking them through. Greater and more varied activities on the part of the pupil are necessary if assimilation is to be expected and the habit of thinking is to be insured. To this end, the author, with James E. Mendenhall, has paralleled the *Introduc-*

¹ Harold Rugg, *An Introduction to American Civilization: A Study of Economic Life in the United States*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1929. Pp. xiv+610. \$1.92.

tion chapter by chapter in a pupil's workbook.¹ The workbook suggests activities and provokes thought. It proposes topics for group discussions, not for recitations, and plans exercises which will make graphic the facts presented in the text. It provides self-checking devices and map drills. It stimulates the writing of stories, the debating of issues under discussion, and the dramatization of colorful events. The workbook is not a series of exercises which every child must complete in order to understand the *Introduction* fully. Rather, it is a collection of stimulating materials from which teachers and pupils may select items suited to their needs and to which, equally, they may add.

Because the textbook and the workbook differ quite markedly from the traditional history and geography textbooks, a discussion of the philosophy back of the construction of the two and of the way in which they may be used most effectively is necessary for many. This the authors offer in their teacher's guide,² a pamphlet which may well serve the teacher in the fashion that the workbook serves the child.

All in all, *An Introduction to American Civilization* and its aids, if used as the authors intend them to be used, may well be counted on to arouse in children some appreciation of our economic institutions and problems and to give them some practice in solving social problems.

LOUISE M. MOHR

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Laboratory manuals in social science.—The number of manuals in social science which have appeared during the past few years indicates that teachers are finding increasing use for such publications. Three history manuals—an outline workbook for American history,³ a manual for use in modern European history,⁴ and a manual for use in a course in world-progress⁵—have recently been published.

Outline Workbook for American History is organized in the conventional "cover-the-ground" fashion. Material is provided on all aspects of American history, and dates, persons, and events are included because of their intrinsic value as matters of information or knowledge, not because they interpret tendencies or movements of the past. Twenty-five topics, beginning with "Discovery and Exploration" and ending with "Readjustment and Problems of

¹ Harold Rugg and James E. Mendenhall, *Pupil's Workbook To Accompany "An Introduction to American Civilization."* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1929. Pp. xiv+80. \$0.36.

² Harold Rugg and James E. Mendenhall, *Teacher's Guide for "An Introduction to American Civilization."* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1929. Pp. iv+172. \$0.48.

³ Nelle L. Holmes, *Outline Workbook for American History.* New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1929. Pp. vi+250.

⁴ Jeanette Jordan Moe and Margaret Stum Thorpe, *Laboratory Manual for Modern European History.* Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1929. Pp. x+142. \$0.96.

⁵ Agnew O. Roorbach and Joseph Leswing, *Directed Study Manual To Accompany "Epochs of World Progress."* New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1929. Pp. iv+140.

Today," are included. The entire field of American history is sketched in outline form with spaces provided in which pupils are to supply information. A review section of sixty pages includes a topical review, an outline review of presidential administrations, a review drill in government, a review drill on historical titles and terms, review questions, and questions designed to test knowledge of facts. This review section is followed by outline maps for twenty-five exercises. The content materials appear to have been carefully prepared and are well adapted to senior high school pupils. The mechanical makeup of the manual is excellent.

Laboratory Manual for Modern European History has the eight following divisions: "Absolutism and the Rise of Democracy," "Mercantilism and the Struggle for Colonial Supremacy," "The Old Régime and the Revolution in France," "Napoleon Bonaparte and the Napoleonic Empire," "Reaction and Revolution," "Nationalism and the Unification of European States," "Democracy, Liberalism, and Nineteenth-Century Expansion of Europe," and "The Great Alliances and International Conflict." According to the authors, the fundamentals of the course are given in chapter xi of Tryon's *The Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High Schools*, and "the manual is an adaptation to the field of modern history of the unit plan of teaching as advocated by Professor H. C. Morrison in *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*" (p. vii). Each division of the manual is introduced by an interesting presentation. Outlines, references, projects and activities, and notebook directions are provided throughout.

Directed Study Manual To Accompany "Epochs of World Progress" contains laboratory material related to the ten following epochs: "Early Civilization," "Greco-Roman Civilization," "The Age of Fusion," "Feudalism," "An Era of Enlightenment," "Absolutism and Colonial Expansion," "A Century of Political Revolutions," "Scientific Progress and Social Reform," "Imperialism and Conflict," and "The New Internationalism." The material relating to each epoch is divided into three assignments, the purpose being to permit the pupil to advance at his own rate of speed. In a foreword addressed to the pupils, the authors state that "the problems, projects, charts, and supplementary readings will teach you how to use the facts you gather; how to distinguish between cause and effect; how to use different texts so as to form unbiased opinions and better judgments; and will create in you a spirit of tolerance by a realization of the dependence and interdependence of man upon man, class upon class, and nation upon nation" (p. iii). The manual is not an outstanding contribution, but it is well prepared and should prove valuable in connection with courses dealing with problems of world-history.

ROBERT B. WEAVER

Handbook on school assemblies.—The school assembly has long been recognized as an important educational agency, but, like many other phases of school work, it has often been injured by tradition and formalism. Widespread in-

terest has been awakened in the assembly in the last few years as careful scrutiny has been focused on the curriculum and on the extra-curriculum activities of the school. As a result, the school assembly has strengthened its position in the school system, and it has been vitalized and invigorated by the initiative and energy of those interested in its development.

The story of the development of the assembly, the functions which it should perform, the manner in which successful assemblies may be organized and executed, and the criteria by which assemblies may be judged are presented in a handbook¹ for teachers and administrators.

The introductory chapters deal with the values of assembly programs, the aims which should guide their development, and certain details of administration which are particularly important. In succeeding chapters specific suggestions are made as to the possibilities available for developing assembly projects in each department of the school. Outlines are given for possible programs for each of the school subjects, for programs adapted to special occasions and to various types of activities, and for programs appealing to the interests of different types of pupils. Everywhere the idea of participation by everyone is stressed.

Almost half the book is devoted to twenty-five appendixes, the greater number of which outline in considerable detail specific programs for assemblies. Appendix X contains a selected list of one-act plays suitable for assembly programs. Appendix Y contains a list of longer plays suitable for public performances and a list of books helpful to the teacher in the preparation of assembly programs. Throughout the book there are helpful suggestions as to where materials may be found.

The book is not a treatise on educational theory but a handbook of specific recommendations derived from successful experience. As such, it should prove valuable to those who guide and direct assembly programs.

IVAN A. BOOKER

Adolescent education.—*Principles of Adolescent Education*² is intended for students in teacher-training institutions who are preparing to teach in secondary schools. It aims to give such persons a philosophy on which they may base their educational ideals and to convince them that there are important distinctions between schooling and education.

Through a description of adolescent education among the Pueblo Indians, the Athenians, and the people of Europe and America in the two preceding centuries, the author throws light in the first chapter on the historical significance of modern secondary education as a form of social control. Adolescent education has always meant adjustment of the individual to the social group,

¹ Eileen H. Galvin and M. Eugenia Walker, *Assemblies for Junior and Senior High Schools*. New York: Professional & Technical Press, 1929. Pp. xxii+346. \$3.25.

² Ralph Dornfeld Owen, *Principles of Adolescent Education*. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1929. Pp. x+434. \$2.80.

has often enforced unquestioning conformity to established practices in spite of the judgment of those who realize the need for change and improvement, and, while it has preserved customs and traditions, has nevertheless frequently hindered genuine progress. Today the challenge is imperative. Adolescents are demanding attention in our secondary schools in ever increasing numbers as wealth increases and the period of productive labor is postponed.

The second chapter discusses the needs of the individual for growth along the lines of his interest. Adolescence appears as a period of life when interests are strong and demand satisfaction through the school and other educational agencies. The history of our secondary schools shows that we have only spasmodically met the issue successfully and that, for the most part, we have established schools dominated by higher institutions and equipped with meager curriculums. The history of secondary schools in the United States is treated briefly. The author reports that, according to data for 1923-24, 90 per cent of the pupils in the secondary schools are still pursuing the academic curriculum which prepares for college.

Throughout the first section of the book are frequent illustrations, which add interest and clarity to the text. This section forms an adequate introduction to the succeeding chapters, which discuss the pupil as an adolescent, with some attention to pre-adolescence.

Physical, mental, and emotional changes which occur during the adolescent period are treated scientifically in the nine chapters which follow. The author draws widely from the experimental evidence gathered by such authorities as Bird T. Baldwin and Helen Thompson Woolley. The reader will no doubt be impressed by the fact that, with all our study, we still have only a meager knowledge of the changes which take place in the physical organism and know still less about the mental changes. As for the emotional changes, we can only generalize from our own experience and from that of the few who have made extensive studies. The "saltatory" and "gradual" theories of mental development are put into their proper places, the truth being found somewhere between them; just where, we do not know. A part of the material used is statistical; another part consists of individual examples which are not very significant and which represent special cases rather than typical cases. Great significance is attached to the predictive value of mental tests and to the process of selection which eliminates many pupils during the secondary-school period.

Two questions deserve more attention than is ordinarily given to them by writers on secondary education. Is the selection in reality a result of elimination because of low intelligence, or is it due partly to the fact that curriculums continue to be academic in most secondary schools? What is the part of each of the factors in the elimination of children from school at an early age? The author recognizes both factors but does not make clear which exercises the greater influence. Probably no one would attempt to answer these questions dogmatically at this stage of development of the study of education.

At any rate, the discussion should arouse the interest of teachers. As a

whole, the points of the author are well made. There are probably places in which the statistics could have been handled with a little more discrimination in a work intended as an introductory course.

"The Curriculum" is the subject of the next section of the book. A careful analysis of aims and a presentation of activities of the curriculum are based on the seven cardinal aims as formulated by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education in 1918. Goals are to be of four kinds—attitudes, habits, skills, and knowledges. In each chapter tables are given setting forth in detail the various aims of education in the fields of health, leisure, citizenship, religion, worthy home membership, vocational training, and the tool subjects. The discussion is perhaps not highly original, but many good illustrations are included, and the reading is not tedious. The author does not fail to emphasize his point of view on many questions. Particularly to be commended, perhaps, are the chapters in which he makes a plea for recognition of the religious nature of the adolescent and the chapter in which he advocates definite vocational training so far as it is possible in the secondary school.

The final appeal of the book is to the teachers themselves. The author shows how reluctant teachers have been to make of teaching a genuine profession, comparing their lack of organization to the finished organization of physicians—the American Medical Association. The efforts of teachers, he believes, should be directed not toward drives for higher salaries but toward the adoption of high ethical standards and toward the elimination of teachers who discredit the profession by refusal to meet legitimate standards and by the adoption of questionable practices. While the American Medical Association and the state bar associations have not hesitated to disqualify the incompetent or unfair practitioner, teachers have been content to compete supinely with inefficiency and indifference, to their detriment and to the detriment of the profession. Such is the general argument of the last two chapters.

In organization, the book is logical and systematic. A summary is given at the end of each chapter, together with assignments for beginning students and for advanced students. There is no general bibliography, but the student is referred to appropriate books in connection with the assignments. Doubtless most readers will be pleased with the educational philosophy of the author, a professor at Temple University.

H. E. DEWEY

A new book on the teaching of Latin.—In spite of the passage of a period of time in which the character of secondary schools was wholly changed because of an unprecedented influx of pupils requiring expansion of the curriculum and reorganization of subject matter and methods in subjects already in the curriculum, in spite of changes in psychological theory that undermined many of its fundamental tenets, and in spite of subsequent publications that proved valuable only as supplements, for twenty-five years (1899-1924) *The Teaching of Latin and Greek* by Bennett and Bristol held the field as the outstanding book

on methods for classical teachers. When the report of the Classical Investigation appeared in 1924, those who were especially interested in methods of teaching Latin felt that the report itself was a discussion of methods that was worthy to take the place long held by the older book and adequate to meet the urgent need for a book in harmony with present conditions. Five years after the publication of that report a new book¹ on method appeared, the posthumous publication of one of the most prominent and efficient members of the committee that conducted the Classical Investigation. One who reads the book is left with the strong impression that the book is, and that the author intended it to be, a supplement to the report. In that capacity, accordingly, judgment should be passed on it.

The outstanding merits of the book are (1) the complete lists of available materials of interest to the teacher of Latin and (2) the point of view of the author.

One-fourth of the book is devoted to the Appendix, which lists materials of interest to the classroom teacher and the sources from which they may be obtained. When one adds to this list other references appearing in the footnotes of the text to publications that give the history of the teaching of Latin, to those that treat general principles, and to those that furnish the data on which various parts of the discussion are based, one has a list far more complete and, because of its arrangement, more usable than any that has been assembled elsewhere.

With regard to the author's revelation of himself, one feels that he knew his field. He was conversant with all the published material on the teaching of Latin, with that on the psychology of related fields, and with that on the secondary school in general. He evaluated what he had come in contact with and expressed his own attitudes and point of view. One may not agree with his conclusions at every point, but one does respect his judgments. He stated his position most fully on those points on which the report of the Classical Investigation has been most vigorously assailed either from within the ranks of classical teachers or from without. In the case of these points one especially appreciates his fairness and moderation combined with a modern, forward-looking attitude of mind.

As to the form of the book, one may feel that the bold-face paragraph headings, like the verse numbers of the Bible, are diverting rather than helpful. The inclusion of the same headings in the Table of Contents makes the preview awkwardly long. A shorter table of contents and a fuller index would have been a more satisfactory arrangement for most readers.

Taken in conjunction with the report of the Classical Investigation, which it supplements but in no way supersedes, *The Teaching of Latin* is a valuable book.

MIMA MAXEY

¹ Mason DeWitt Gray, *The Teaching of Latin*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1929. Pp. xviii+236. \$2.00.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY,
AND PRACTICE

- BETTS, GEORGE H., and KENT, RAYMOND A. *Foreign Language Equipment of 2325 Doctors of Philosophy*. Northwestern University Contributions to Education, School of Education Series, No. 2. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1929. Pp. 152.
- BILLINGS, NEAL. *A Determination of Generalizations Basic to the Social Studies Curriculum*. University Research Monographs, Number 11. Baltimore: Warwick & York, Inc., 1929. Pp. xii+290. \$3.00.
- HARRINGTON, HAROLD L. *Program Making for Junior High Schools*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1930. Pp. viii+174. \$1.75.
- The Junior College Curriculum*. Edited by William S. Gray. Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, Volume I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929. Pp. viii+262. \$2.00.
- LAYCOCK, SAM R. *Adaptability to New Situations*. Baltimore: Warwick & York, Inc., 1929. Pp. xii+170. \$2.40.
- LINN, HENRY H. *Safeguarding School Funds*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 387. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Pp. x+188. \$1.75.
- MCAADORY, MARGARET. *The Construction and Validation of an Art Test*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 383. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Pp. 36. \$1.50.
- MCGINNIS, WILLIAM C. *School Administrative and Supervisory Organizations in Cities of 20,000 to 50,000 Population*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 392. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Pp. vi+104. \$1.50.
- MOFFETT, M'LEDGE. *The Social Background and Activities of Teachers College Students*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 375. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Pp. vi+134. \$1.50.
- NELSON, LOUISE A. *Variations in Development and Motor Control in Goiterous and Non-goiterous Adolescent Girls*. Baltimore: Warwick & York, Inc., 1929. Pp. xii+194. \$2.75.
- NEWCOMB, THEODORE M. *The Consistency of Certain Extrovert-Introvert Behavior Patterns in 51 Problem Boys*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 382. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Pp. 124. \$1.50.
- RUSSELL, CHARLES. *Standard Tests: A Handbook for the Classroom Teacher*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1930. Pp. vi+516. \$2.00.
- SMITH, CHARLES ALONZO. *Some Relationships Existing in School Expenditure among Florida Counties*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 352. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Pp. viii+54. \$1.50.

- STONE, CLARENCE R. *Supervision of the Elementary School*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929. Pp. xx+574. \$2.50.
- STURTEVANT, SARAH M., and STRANG, RUTH. *A Personnel Study of Deans of Girls in High Schools*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 393. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Pp. viii+150. \$1.50.
- UPSHALL, C. C. *Day Schools vs. Institutions for the Deaf*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 389. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Pp. 104. \$1.50.
- WOODY, THOMAS. *A History of Women's Education in the United States*: Volume I, pp. xvi+608; Volume II, pp. xii+646. Science and Education, Volume IV, Books I and II. Lancaster, Pennsylvania: Science Press, 1929.
- YAKEL, RALPH. *The Legal Control of the Administration of Public School Expenditures*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 388. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. Pp. viii+168. \$1.75.

BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- ALTMAYER, CARL LEWIS. *Business Communication: Customs, Art, and Mechanism*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1930. Pp. xvi+496. \$1.80.
- CAMPBELL, GLADYS, and THOMAS, RUSSELL. *Magazines and Newspapers of Today*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1929. Pp. x+210.
- EARHART, WILL, and SNEATH, E. HERSHEY. *Songs of Purpose: Advanced Music*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1929. Pp. x+298. \$1.60.
- ESTAUNÉ, ÉDOUARD. *Tels qu'ils furent*. Edited with notes, exercises, and vocabulary by Frédéric Ernst and Hélène Harvitt. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1929. Pp. xvi+290. \$1.20.
- FLETCHER, GUSTAV L., SMITH, HERBERT O., and HARROW, BENJAMIN. *Beginning Chemistry*. Chicago: American Book Co., 1929. Pp. viii+476. \$1.60.
- FORBIN, VICTOR. *Nos amis les bêtes*. Edited by Benjamin W. Mitchell. Newark, New Jersey: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1930. Pp. xii+240. \$1.08.
- FOSTER, LILLIAN, and WOOLEY, ELMER O. *Geschichten und Märchen für Anfänger*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1929. Pp. vi+212. \$1.20.
- JOHNSON, ROY IVAN, COWAN, ESTHER MARSHALL, and PEACOCK, MARY SAFFORD. *Study and Appreciation of the Short Story with Representative Readings*. Newark, New Jersey: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1930. Pp. lx+386. \$1.20.
- JORDAN, ARTHUR L. *Elementary Laboratory Aerodynamics*. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1929. Pp. 68. \$0.80.
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